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1893

BOARD OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

First School District of Pennsylvania

ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

OF THE

CITY OF PHILADELPHIA

FOR THE YEAR 1893

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PHILADELPHIA

BURK & McFETRIDGE CO., PRINTERS
306-308 Chestnut Street

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Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools.

To the Board of Public Education
of the First School District of Pennsylvania.

In compliance with the Rules of the Board of Public Education of the First School District of Pennsylvania, I have the honor of presenting this, my Second Annual Report as Superintendent of the Public Schools of Philadelphia. In this report I shall endeavor to indicate the progress of education in Philadelphia with which the Department of Superintendence has been associated during the past year, making also such suggestions for the future as may seem advisable at the present time.

The year just closing may in several respects be regarded as a memorable one in the history of education in Philadelphia. It has been marked with a number of important changes in organization and management, indicating a spirit of progress creditable to the Board of Education and gratifying to the general public. Much of the work of the year consists in laying foundations upon which the future can "build more stately palaces" of excellence and success. In the development of any great social or educational movement it is seen that progress always dates from special changes known as epochs; and in several respects the past year may be regarded as an epochal year, a year from which much of the history of public education in this city for the next generation will date.

Among the most important of these changes stand the reorganization of the Girls' High School and the

establishment of a new Normal School for the education of women teachers. The significance and far-reaching influence of these changes appear in the fact that these institutions educate over 95 per cent. of the teachers of our public schools. If these teachers are well educated and properly trained for their duties, they will carry this education and training into the schools of the city and thus increase their efficiency and success. If they have been poorly prepared for their work, the standard of teaching will be lowered and the schools will deteriorate in their work and influence. Nothing is more nearly axiomatic in education than that the teacher makes the school. A good teacher, a good school,—a poor teacher, a poor school; this is a universal law. It has been said “that no school can rise above the teacher of the school;” but alas! it is possible for a teacher to sink beneath the school and drag it downward with her. The schools of a community rise or fall with the quality or qualification of the teachers; and in a large city these teachers must be prepared mainly by the city itself. The institutions which educate the women teachers of the city stand, therefore, at the fountain-head of the influences which give life and efficiency to the public schools of the city. To them, more than to all other influences combined, is due the condition of these schools in which are laid the foundations of domestic happiness, social virtue, and patriotic citizenship.

In order that we may form an adequate conception and a just appreciation of the vast importance and far-reaching influences of the changes of the past year aiming at the more thorough education of young women and their training as teachers, a brief statement of the work of the Department of Public Education will be made. In this statement I shall aim also to show the advanced position that Philadelphia has occupied in the education of its women and the training of its teachers, as well as to

describe the conspicuous addition to these privileges provided by the Board during the past year.

THE OLD HIGH AND NORMAL SCHOOL.

In tracing the history of education in this city it is gratifying to note that Philadelphia has been conspicuously associated with the origin and development of the modern idea of the professional education of teachers. This idea had its birth at the very beginning of advanced education in Philadelphia. One of the objects of the founders of the University of Pennsylvania was the preparation of teachers for Elementary Schools. Dr. Franklin in addressing Councils in its behalf urges the need of school-masters, and suggests that the school to be established can furnish a supply of those who can "teach children reading, writing, arithmetic and the grammar of their mother tongue." In the year 1818 a Model School for the preparation of teachers was established in Philadelphia by an Act of the Legislature of the State. This school was organized on the Lancasterian plan, and was conducted for several years by the celebrated English educator, Joseph Lancaster, as principal of the Model School under the employ of the Board of Control. So successful was the school that in 1821, as Mr. Wickersham tell us in his "History of Education in Pennsylvania," "this school was attended by 564 pupils, and teachers were prepared therein not only for the schools of the city, but to some extent for those in other parts of the State."

Thus in 1818, full twenty years before the first Normal School was opened at Lexington, Mass., a school for the education of teachers, technically known as a Model School, was established in this city in accordance with an act of the State Legislature. This institution was a Normal School in the strictest meaning of the term;

indeed, it was a kind of State Normal School, for the legislative enactment authorized the Board of Control to establish a school "to qualify teachers for the Sectional Schools and for schools in other parts of the State." To Philadelphia, therefore, belongs the honor of establishing the first school for the special training of teachers in the United States.

This Model School not only educated many teachers for the city and the State, but also planted the seeds of the future system of professional training in Philadelphia. The Hon. Roberts Vaux in his report as President of the Board of Controllers in 1829, speaking of the work of this Model School says: "Several persons of both sexes have recently availed themselves of the privilege of acquiring a knowledge of the Lancasterian plan of instruction by attending the Model and other schools, and some of the individuals thus qualified are candidates for employment in Pennsylvania, in many of the interior counties of which an increased degree of attention has lately been manifested for providing the means of elementary instruction to a large number of youths now destitute of that blessing." In 1832 an Infant Model School was connected with the Model School, which seems to have been used as a School for Practice. Mr. Thomas Dunlap, President of the Board, in his report for 1834, speaking of the Infant School says: "It has furnished an admirable seminary for the instruction of Infant School teachers, numbers of whom have regularly devoted their time to the acquirement of practical skill in conducting these schools, and are believed, in several instances, to be now competent to take charge of similar establishments." In the following year, 1835, he says: "The original Model Infant School established by the Controllers, continues to merit the warm approbation which has heretofore been expressed by the Board, and in addition to its direct utility to the pupils

enrolled in it, has, under the guidance of its experienced and indefatigable teacher, been of great importance in furtherance of the plan by the indispensable aid it has furnished in preparing and qualifying teachers for the same department of instruction."

About the year 1836 the Model School having lost its distinctive character as a training school for teachers, became in effect one of the Grammar Schools of the city, though it still retained its name of "Model School." Twelve years later the Controllers of the Public Schools converted the so-called Model School into a Normal School for the purpose of training young women to become teachers. It is thus seen that there was an intimate relation, if not an unbroken connection, between the Model School of 1818 and the Normal School of 1848. That the spirit of the professional education of teachers, originating in the school of 1818, continued and was perpetuated in the Normal School of 1848 is beyond question. Mr. Wickersham, in his admirable History of Education in Pennsylvania, says: "To show that the present Normal School of the city, with its admirable School of Practice, grew out of these beginnings, it is only necessary to quote a paragraph from the Controller's report for 1848. This report says: 'During this year, the Model School in Chester street has been converted into a Normal School for the education of female teachers. Much interest has been felt in this action of the Board; and it has been attended with very encouraging prospects of success.'"

This Normal School of 1848, it is claimed, was the first Normal School not under State control, established in any city in the United States. It attracted wide attention and became the model after which similar schools were established in other cities of the country. The school opened on the first of February, 1848, under Dr. A. T. W. Wright, as principal, with six assistant teachers

and one hundred and six pupils. The Course of Study required two years for its completion. The school was popular from the beginning and soon outgrew its accommodations. A new building was erected for its use in Sergeant street, and the Normal School was transferred to it in 1854, along with the Model School which still kept up its connection with the Normal School. This Model School was discontinued as such soon after, and in lieu thereof, a School of Practice was organized. In 1857, Mr. Philip A. Cregar was elected principal, and in 1859 the "Girl's Normal School" became by a change of name the "Girl's High School." In 1861 the name was again changed to "Girl's High and Normal School," and the course of instruction was so modified as to give professional training solely in the last year of the course. These changes indicate the gradual growth of public sentiment in respect to the higher education of girls and their preparation for teachers in the elementary schools.

In 1865 Prof. George W. Fetter was elected principal of the school, and under his energetic and efficient management it has done a great work for popular education in Philadelphia. The school-building, which was new in 1854, became antiquated before a score of years had passed, and in 1876 the school was transferred to a new home at Seventeenth and Spring Garden streets, one of the largest and best arranged school-buildings at that time in the country. It was dedicated on the 30th of October amid congratulations on past success and prophecies of future prosperity. The Hon. Simon Gratz gave voice to the sentiments and wishes of the public when he said in his opening address:—

And now with a building which, in point of elegance and fitness, will rival any in the land, a corps of teachers who would do honor to any institution of learning, an enlarged and comprehensive course of study which will cultivate and sharpen the reasoning faculties, stimulate thought and tore the minds of the pupils with an ample stock of useful knowledge, and

last, but of the first importance, that indispensable adjunct, a thoroughly organized school of practice, in which constant opportunity may be had for testing the ability of the pupil to make practical application of her theoretical knowledge of methods of teaching and of discipline, may we not reasonably expect to achieve such results as will make the school worthy of the pride of our citizens?

The course of study was naturally changed during the many years of the existence of the school, both in its academic and in its professional work, in order to keep pace with the advance of educational thought throughout the country. In many of these changes it is gratifying to remember that this school was in advance of most similar institutions in the country. This school was among the first to introduce a course of physical training, and for a number of years has had a complete and systematic course of instruction in this department. It was also one of the first institutions to introduce several forms of manual training suitable for girls. Sewing was introduced in 1881, and has been taught with success since that time. Cookery, the introduction of which was recommended by Principal Fetter in his report to the Board in 1884, became one of the regular branches in 1887, and thus pioneered its introduction a year or two later into the grammar schools of the city. Other changes were gradually made in the course of study to meet the demands of the times and keep the school abreast with the educational movements of the day.

The growth and work of the school will be more definitely indicated by the following facts: The school opened February 1, 1848, with one hundred and six pupils and seven teachers, including the principal. In 1865 it contained two hundred and seventy pupils and ten teachers. Since that time the most remarkable increase in numbers has been made that can be found in the history of any normal school in the country, with the possible exception of the one in New York. In 1893 it contained

one thousand seven hundred and seventy-five pupils, with fifty-two teachers. Since its establishment, six thousand one hundred and forty pupils have graduated. The whole number of pupils who have attended is twelve thousand seven hundred and ten, and of that number nearly five thousand have been engaged in teaching in the public schools of the city. At the present time over two thousand four hundred of the teachers in Philadelphia are graduates of the school, including a large majority of the women principals of the city.

The school has also done a great work for Philadelphia in addition to its training of the teachers of the public schools. One of the graduates has filled the pulpit; quite a number have distinguished themselves in literary work; several have studied medicine, and are successful practitioners; many have adopted art work as their profession, and a few have gone as missionaries to foreign lands. The two women assistant superintendents of the public schools of the city are graduates of the institution. One of the most influential organizations of teachers in the city is the Alumnae Association of the Girls' High and Normal School. In addition to these items the greatest work of the school is perhaps to be found in the many happy homes in which the mother educated in the school has carried the influence of its culture into her domestic life, and is sending out of refined home circles the future mothers of our citizens and the rulers of the city.

THE NEW HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

The genius of modern civilization is expressed in a system of free public education. The crown of this system is the Public High School. Such a High School was established in Philadelphia for boys in 1838. Ten years later, as previously explained, a High School for girls was

organized for the special purpose of preparing teachers for the public schools. This school began with a two years' course, which was gradually extended to a four years' course, the last year being strictly professional.

In the establishment of this school, Philadelphia has the credit of being one of the earliest cities in the country to recognize the right of young women to a higher education and to make provisions for it. This credit is enhanced by the fact that at that date the movement was largely in opposition to intelligent American prejudice and practice; only a few schools where girls could study the higher branches were in existence, and most of these were private institutions. It will be seen, therefore, that Philadelphia, as conservative as she has generally been considered, thus early threw her influence on the progressive and liberal side of the question of the higher education of women. By this step she placed herself in the front rank of educational progress and set an example, the influence of which can be directly traced in the establishment of similar institutions in several other cities.

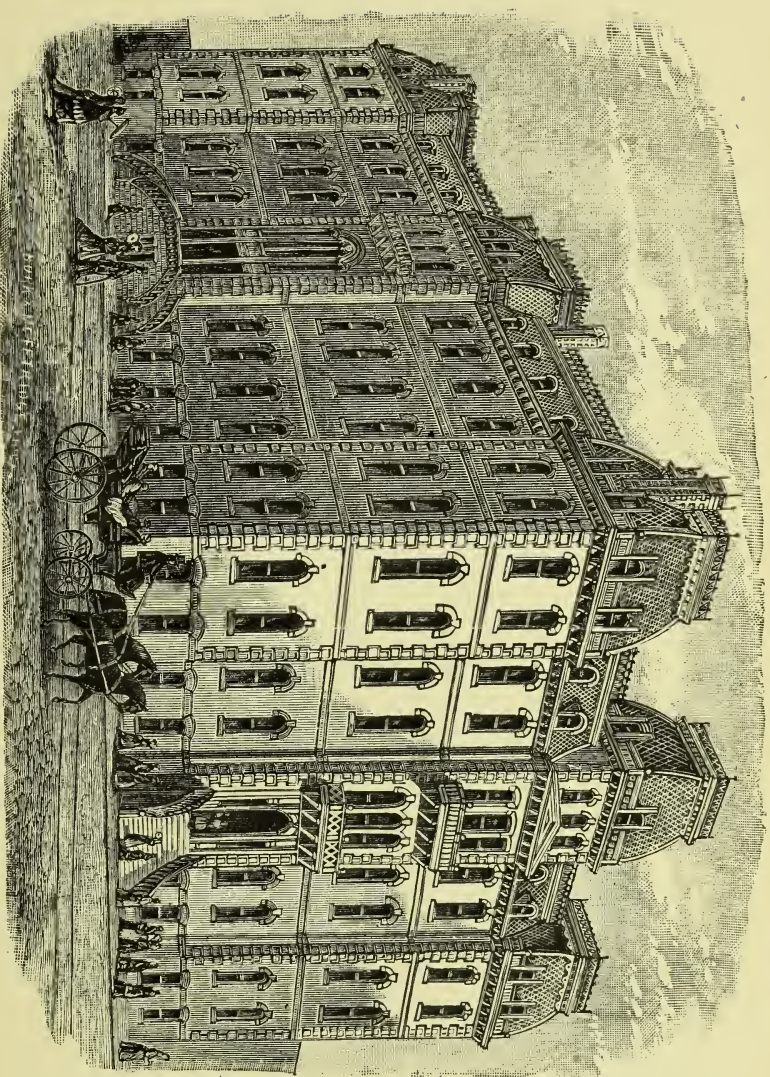
While the history of this institution is an honorable one, as has already been shown, its leading purpose of preparing teachers for the elementary schools in a measure retarded its growth and development as a High School. Though its course of study was eventually extended to three years, it never became a High School in the modern sense of the term until its reorganization last year. The Boys' High School had a liberal curriculum from the beginning by which young men with educational aspirations could fit themselves for college or the university; but no such privileges were afforded to their sisters who with equal standing in the grammar schools might have as ardent aspirations for higher culture throbbing in their hearts. The almost sole object of the institution was to prepare girls for teaching. Any young woman who desired to fit

herself for college or business must seek private tuition or attend some seminary or select school. That there were extenuating circumstances, as explained elsewhere, which went far to excuse this condition of affairs will be readily admitted; but the fact remains that a city which had pioneered so many educational movements had herself fallen behind in the provisions for the higher education of her young women.

As the years passed it became more and more apparent that what satisfied the educational needs of one generation did not measure up to the requirements of the following generation. As the sentiment in favor of the higher education of girls developed throughout the country, it began to be seen that this school was not keeping pace with the spirit of the age, either in its scholastic or its professional department. Several attempts were made to improve and extend its curriculum, as has already been shown; but it was early recognized that the two schools must be separated and a complete reorganization effected before the problem of female education in Philadelphia could be solved. The Committee having charge of the school were early impressed with this idea, but many difficulties presented themselves to delay the movement. These difficulties were at last overcome, and in the spring of 1891 the Board decided to separate the two departments and organize a new High School for Girls.

The preparation of the new curriculum was naturally assigned to the Superintendent. Upon this responsible task, so full of importance for the future, much time and careful and serious thought were expended. Upon an examination of the old course of study it was found that, while it contained some excellent features, it was behind the times as a representative of High School education. It contained no Latin, French, Greek or German, provided no apparatus for illustrating the physical sciences

GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL, Corner Seventeenth and Spring Garden Streets.



and no laboratories for scientific investigation and instruction. No provisions were made for the preparation of girls for college or for their training for business pursuits. Any girl of the public schools who desired to fit herself for college, or for the counting-room or business office must attend a private institution. That this was a reproach to Philadelphia which should be removed was of course evident, though it should be remembered that it was the result of circumstances almost beyond the control of those who had directed the policy of the institution for many years. The time was now ripe for the change, however, and the Committee, with confidence in the judgment of the Superintendent, were found to be as radical and progressive in their views in respect to the new curriculum as he was himself. To the Chairman of the Committee, Mr. Gratz, especial credit is due for the broad and liberal spirit manifested in this work.

In the preparation of this new course several leading principles were kept prominently in view. The first consideration was that the course should afford that general culture and training best adapted to prepare women for the ordinary duties of life. In other words, Spencer's idea of "complete living" as an end of education was operative in the arrangement of this part of the new curriculum. In accordance with this idea of general culture, provision was first made for a four years' General Course. This course includes careful instruction in English, ancient and modern history, civics, natural science, mathematics, psychology, sociology, ethics, æsthetics, two or three years in Latin, one or two years in French or German, and the arts of drawing, singing, sewing, cooking and gymnastics. Such a course seems well adapted to give that general culture which fits a woman to be a source of refinement and spiritual power in the home circle of which she is destined to become the centre.

A second consideration in the arrangement of a course for a Girls' High School was the practical needs and demands of the public schools of the city. These schools are to be supplied with teachers, the large majority of these teachers are women, and young women must be properly educated for this work. This education should include both scholarship and professional training. To afford this scholastic preparation a three years' course was provided, equivalent to the first three years of the general course just described, to be followed by a two years' course in the Normal School. It includes careful preparation in English and the elements of several of the sciences, a three years' course in Latin, and instruction in the arts of singing, sewing, cooking, drawing, etc. This teachers' course has been fixed at three years, thus requiring five years for a young woman to qualify herself as a teacher before she can begin her work in the public schools. Girls leave the grammar schools at about fourteen years of age, so that they will be about nineteen or twenty when they enter upon the work of teaching. A four years' course in the High School would have given a more thorough scholastic preparation, but the delay would have seemed a hardship to the pupils and might have interfered with an adequate supply of teachers in the public schools; and, between spending one year more in the High School and a year less in the Normal School, my experience in normal school work leads me to decide in favor of the plan adopted. Professional training for a single year has been found inadequate for the demands of modern education.

Besides these two classes of students, it was recognized that there was, growing up in the city, a large number of young women who desired to prepare for that higher education obtained at the college and university, and that this number would rapidly increase as the opportunity for such preparation was extended. Provisions

were thus made for a college preparatory course, called a Classical Course, in which thorough preparation can be made to enter any college in the land open to women. It includes, in addition to the English branches and the sciences, a four years' course in Latin and French and a two years' course in German, these modern languages being now accepted by a large number of colleges. I take this opportunity of expressing my appreciation of the interest manifested in this feature of the new course by Bryn Mawr College, whose authorities presented two free scholarships to the graduates of the course.

In addition to these three classes—those desiring a general education, those wishing to prepare for teaching, and those wishing to prepare for college—there was another class of girls in our public schools whose tastes and abilities led them to desire to equip themselves for the business office or counting-room. To afford opportunities to this class of young women, a three years' Business Course was decided upon, including, besides the necessary training in English, such branches as French or German, stenography, typewriting, business forms, commercial law, etc. In this course it is proposed to give the students as thorough a business training as can be obtained in any first-class business college.

Having settled upon the Courses of Study, the next object was the proper co-ordination of these different courses so as to secure a convenient working program. Care must be taken not to multiply classes and instructors on account of the expenses involved. The different courses should, so far as possible, run in parallel lines. This not only insures an economy of teaching force and a convenience in arranging programs, but it also affords an opportunity to pupils for any reasonable change in respect to the course they decide to complete. The thought was that girls upon entering the High School, on account of youth and

inexperience, may make a mistake in the selection of their course; and, besides this, circumstances often arise in which a change of election becomes not only a convenience but a necessity. Care was thus taken to arrange the branches of the three courses in parallel lines so that transition from one course to the other, within certain limits, can be conveniently made. It is expected, however, that such changes will be seldom made and only in cases of real necessity.

The new curriculum thus embraces three distinct courses of study—a General Course, a Classical Course and a Business Course. The first two courses cover a period of four years; the Business Course extends but three years. The Classical Course embraces, besides the regular English and Scientific studies, instruction in Latin and French throughout the entire four years and in German during the last two years. The General Course also contains Latin during the first two years, and Latin, French or German the last two years. Three years of this course are designed to prepare girls for the Normal School. The Business Course includes, besides the ordinary branches in English and Science, stenography, typewriting, commercial law, etc. The entire course, as reported to the Board, is presented in detail as follows :—*

COURSE OF STUDY IN GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL.

FIRST YEAR.

FIRST TERM.

<i>General Course.</i>	<i>Classical Course.</i>	<i>Business Course.</i>
English.....	English.....	English.....
Latin.....	Latin and French.....	French or German [or both]..
Grecian History.....	Grecian History.....	Algebra.....
Algebra.....	Algebra.....	Physiology.....
Physiology.....	Physiology.....	Penmanship and Business
Drawing, Sewing, Music, Drawing, Sewing, Music, Gymnastics.....	Gymnastics.....	Gymnastics.....

* The following changes were made by the Board in the Business Course: Algebra was stricken out of the first year and Stenography and Typewriting (elective) were added. The words "or both" were stricken out of the first, second and third years. Stenography and Typewriting were stricken out of the third year and Commercial Geography added.

FIRST YEAR.

SECOND TERM.

*General Course.**Classical Course.**Business Course.*

English.....	English.....	English.....
Latin.....	Latin and French.....	French or German [or both]..
Roman History.....	Roman History.....	Algebra and Arithmetic.....
Algebra and Arithmetic.....	Algebra and Arithmetic.....	Commercial Geography.....
Botany and Zoology.....	Drawing, Sewing, Music, Pennmanship and Business	
Drawing, Sewing, Music, Gymnastics.....	Forms	
Gymnastics.....	Drawing, Sewing, Music,	
.....	Gymnastics.....	

SECOND YEAR.

FIRST TERM.

English.....	English.....	English.....
Latin.....	Latin and French.....	French or German [or both]..
General History.....	General History	General History
Algebra and Arithmetic.....	Algebra.....	Commercial Arithmetic.....
Physical Geography.....	Physics.....	Shorthand and Business
Drawing, Sewing, Music, Drawing, Sewing, Music, Forms		
Gymnastics, Cookery and Cookery, Elocution, Gym- Sewing, Cookery, Music,		
Elocution.....	nastics.....	Gymnastics.....

SECOND YEAR.

SECOND TERM.

English.....	English.....	English.....
Latin.....	Latin and French.....	French or German [or both]..
General History.....	General History.....	General History
Algebra and Arithmetic.....	Algebra.....	Physics and Physical Geog-
Physics	Physics.....	raphy.....
Drawing, Sewing, Music, Drawing, Sewing, Music, Shorthand and Business Cor-		
Gymnastics, Cookery, Elo- Gymnastics, Cookery, Elo- response.....		
cution.....	cution.....	Cookery (Chemistry of
.....		Foods), Music, Gymnastics

THIRD YEAR.

FIRST TERM.

English Rhetoric.....	English Rhetoric.....	French or German [or both]..
Latin, French or German.....	Latin	American History.....
American History.....	French and German.....	Commercial Arithmetic.....
Geometry (plane).....	American History.....	Book-keeping and Business
Physics.....	Geometry (plane).....	Methods
Drawing, Music, Elocution, Physics.....		Shorthand and Typewriting..
Sewing, Gymnastics.....	Drawing, Music, Elocution, Drawing, Music, Gymnastics	
.....	Sewing, Gymnastics.....	

THIRD YEAR.

SECOND TERM.

English Rhetoric.....	English Rhetoric.....	French or German [or both]..
Latin, French or German.....	Latin.....	Civics.....
Civics.....	French and German.....	Book-keeping and Business
Geometry (plane).....	Geometry (plane).....	Methods.....
Chemistry.....	Drawing, Music, Elocution, Commercial Law.....	
Drawing, Music, Elocution, Gymnastics, Sewing.....		Shorthand and Typewriting.
Sewing, Gymnastics.....	Drawing, Music, Gymnastics	

FOURTH YEAR.

FIRST TERM.

*General Course.**Classical Course.*

Literature.....	Literature.....
French or German.....	Latin.....
History or Art.....	French and German.....
Psychology.....	Trigonometry.....
Astronomy or Geology.....	Astronomy or Geology.....
Sketching—water-colors.....	Music, Elocution, Gymnastics.....
Music, Elocution, Gymnastics.....	

FOURTH YEAR.

SECOND TERM.

Literature.....	Literature.....
French or German.....	Latin.....
Principles of Art.....	French and German.....
Sociology or Moral Philosophy.....	Review Mathematics.....
Sketching—water-colors.....	Music, Elocution, Gymnastics.....
Music, Elocution, Gymnastics.....	

It is believed that this Course of Study is broad, comprehensive and practical, and that it expresses the most advanced ideas in respect to the modern education of young women. The course went into operation last fall, and though it will take some time to make the transition complete from the old order of things to the new, the classes and teachers have entered upon the new work with interest and enthusiasm. New methods of instruction are being gradually introduced with the new course of study. The apparatus for illustrative work, of which there has been too little heretofore, is being increased, laboratories for physical and chemical instruction are being prepared, and laboratory methods of teaching the sciences are being introduced as rapidly as circumstances will allow. The Committee in charge of the school is one of the most intelligent and progressive in the Board, and they are determined that the new school shall, both in its curriculum and methods of instruction represent the most advanced ideas of modern education. Prof. George W. Fetter, so long the executive head of the old school, was elected principal of the new school with an advanced

salary ; and he will no doubt regard the reorganization of the school on the basis of its new curriculum and methods as the crowning work of his long and honorable educational career.*

This new High School for Girls stands as the highest expression of the genius of the civilization of the nineteenth century. It means equal educational privileges to all, regardless of sex, color or social condition. This significance is enhanced by the fact that at the dawn of the nineteenth century the doors of higher education were closed to women. Gradually these doors have been forced open until to-day, high school, college and university are almost as free to women as to men. The nineteenth century has broken the bonds of female enslavement, and given to women a freedom of educational privileges equal to those accorded to men. This impressive fact is expressed in our new High School for Girls. If a young woman of the city has an aspiration to enter college, she can now fit herself for it as freely as her brother who attends the Central High School. If she desires a general education for the dignity of learning and the influence of a cultivated womanhood, she has the opportunity to acquire it. If she wishes to fit herself for business, for the counting-room or office, a thorough business training is at her command, free of expense ; while those who desire to enter the public schools as teachers will be afforded an opportunity for scholastic and professional training equal to any that can be found in the United States. It gives me great pleasure, not unmingled with a feeling of pride, to make these statements, not only on account of the intrinsic value of the new school to our people, but also because the creditable position which

*Since the above was written, Professor Fetter has tendered his resignation, which was accepted by the Board accompanied with complimentary resolutions recognizing his long and successful connection with the institution. His successor is Dr. John G. Wight, of Worcester, Massachusetts, a gentleman whose broad scholarship, high character, and successful experience, eminently qualify him for the position.

Philadelphia has occupied in the history of popular education in this country has not always been recognized, and defects or deficiencies in some parts of her system have been magnified and criticised by those who could not understand the difficulties which delayed the complete organization of facilities for the higher education of her young women. To-day every cause of reproach of this kind is removed, and we can challenge comparison in respect to the facilities for the higher education of young women with any city in the country.

THE NEW NORMAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

Co-ordinate in importance with the reorganization of the Girls' High School, or even transcending it in its influence on public education, is the establishment of the new Normal School for Girls. This event, one of the most prominent in the records of the year, plants a new mile-stone in the path of educational progress in Philadelphia. As is well known the Girls' High School and the Girls' Normal School were for many years one institution. Founded in 1848, it was one of the earliest schools of its kind in the country, and its record of work has been most conspicuous and creditable, as is attested by the hundreds of accomplished women teachers in our city. Like other schools of its class, it embraced two distinct courses of study, a Scholastic Course and a Professional Course. As the years went by and students multiplied and the standard of professional training advanced, it was found impossible under this dual organization to meet the demands of modern pedagogical training. It thus became a necessity to separate the scholastic and the professional departments, making two distinct institutions,—a Girls' High School and a Girls' Normal School. In this separation it was decided that the older building should be

devoted to the Girls' High School, and that a new building should be erected for the Girls' Normal School. .

The plan of the new building was prepared with great care and embodied the latest and most advanced ideas in respect to the facilities necessary for the education of teachers. Ground was broken in the spring of 1892, and the work was pushed so rapidly that the building was ready to occupy in the fall of 1893. The building is constructed of granite with courses of Indiana sandstone, the effect being one of peculiar elegance and stability. It is four stories high, and its dimensions are 178 x 150 feet. It contains a magnificent assembly-room capable of seating nearly one-thousand four-hundred persons; a handsome chapel or lecture-room that will seat over four hundred and fifty persons; a large gymnasium 88 x 56 feet, two Physical laboratories, two Chemical laboratories, a Natural History laboratory, a large library-room, all fitted up in the most approved style. There are also eighteen class-rooms for Normal students, and sixteen class-rooms for Model School and Kindergarten, a lunch-room in the basement for students, and another in one of the upper stories for teachers. On each floor are dressing-rooms for teachers, and the general accommodations for students are complete and convenient. In the basement which is high and well lighted, there is a large room fitted up as a manual shop, also one for a modeling-room for the School of Observation, and another for a play-room for pupils of the Model School.

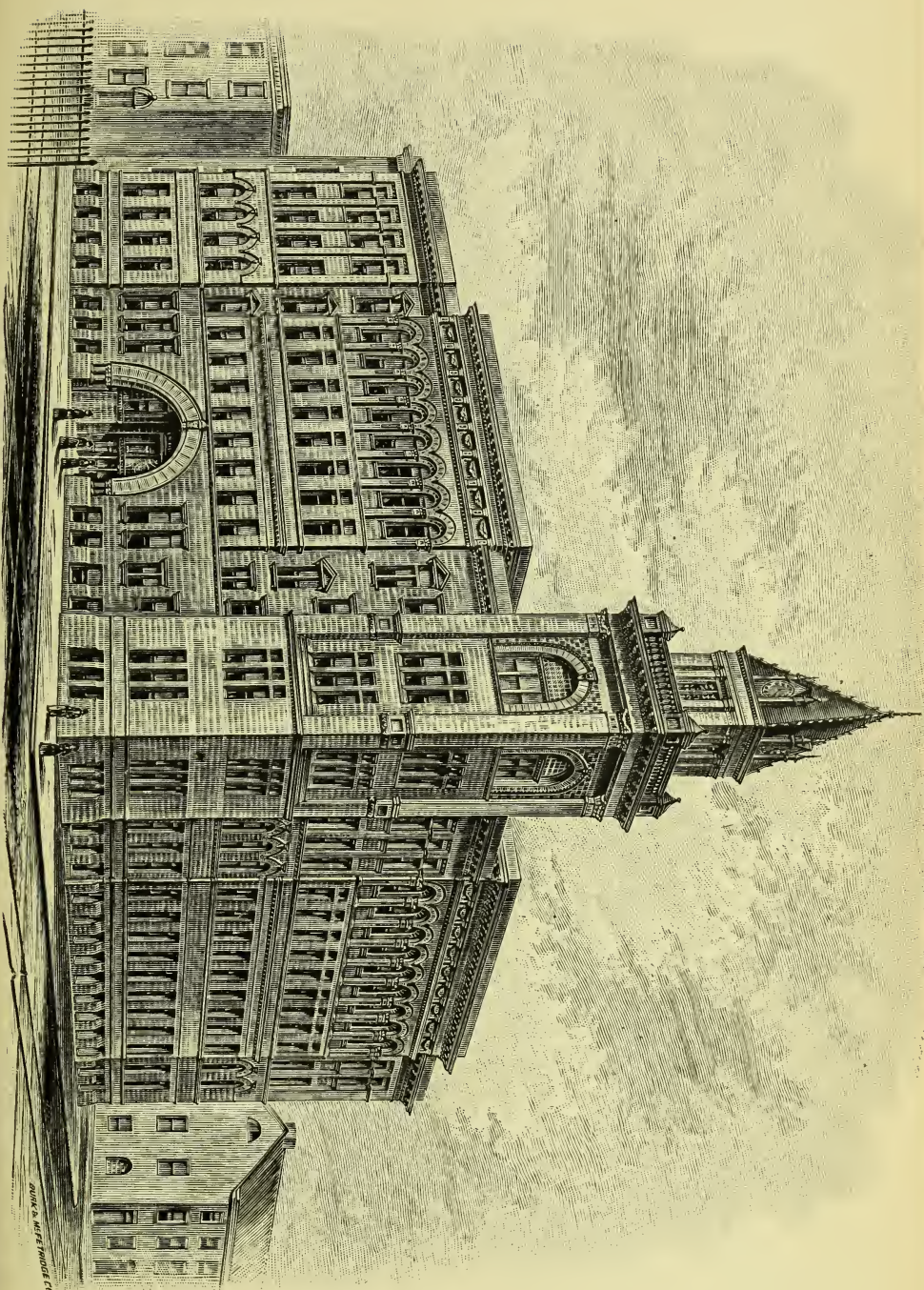
A large steam and electric light plant with ventilating apparatus is placed in the basement. This consists of four boilers of seventy-five horse-power each, two large Corliss engines running two five-hundred-light Thomson-Houston dynamos, and one slide-valve engine operating two ventilating fans. The cold air is forced by these fans through large concrete ducts to various class-rooms in the

building; while in the winter the air is warmed by passing it over coils of steam piping, thus making it possible always to have fresh air passing to the class-rooms at the rate of twenty-five cubic feet per individual every minute, the temperature being regulated by the thermostats in the rooms or corridors. These latter are electrically connected with the compressed air tubes which control automatically the valves in the steam system, so that the whole building is heated at a uniform temperature. By means of the electric light plant, with its total capacity of eleven hundred lights, the building is brilliantly illuminated for evening exercises.

The first floor of the building is covered with marble mosaic and all the other floors with selected maple. The Principal's office and the library are floored with parquetry of neat design. The walls of the building have been painted in quiet yet rich tones, and their beauty is in itself an education to the students. The lower part of the walls are wainscotted with tiles of various patterns, producing a pleasing and beautiful effect in class-rooms and corridors. The furniture of the building is simple, yet admirably adapted to the work for which it was designed. The entire building is a gem of architecture, and commands general admiration. Indeed, for its symmetry of proportion, the completeness of its arrangements and the elegance of its finish, it is unsurpassed by any Normal School building in this country or in the world.

The preparation of the Course of Instruction fell to the Superintendent, a task to which he devoted his best thought and judgment and the experience of nearly thirty years of Normal School work. It is based on the assumption that teaching is a science and an art, and is to be studied and learned like any other kindred science and art. The Science and Art of Teaching, determined by the correct conception of education, embrace fundamentally

GIRLS' NORMAL SCHOOL



WILLIAM A. WILSON & CO.



two things—the development of the possibilities and powers of man, and the furnishing of his mind with knowledge. The development of the powers of man is known technically by the word Culture; the furnishing of the mind with knowledge is known as Instruction. These two ideas, Culture and Instruction, while logically and practically distinguished in the study of the Science of Teaching, are to be carefully blended in the practice of the art. Proper culture is given by proper instruction founded upon the laws of mental growth and acquisition.

The Science of Teaching embracing both of these elements, the development of man's powers and the acquisition of knowledge, includes fundamentally two general divisions, Methods of Culture and Methods of Instruction. Methods of Culture recognises the twofold nature of man, physical and mental, and embraces a discussion of the principles and methods of developing both the physical and the mental nature of the student. The Course in Physical Culture is based on the study of what may be called "Educational Physiology," including a consideration of the laws of health, the various methods of gymnastic training, etc. It aims to secure the four ends of physical education—health, strength, skill and grace. The culture of the mental or spiritual nature of man is adapted to his threefold nature and includes intellectual culture, æsthetic culture and moral culture. The Course in Mental Culture is based upon the study of what is known as "Educational Psychology," which includes besides standard psychology, all that is valuable in physiological, experimental, and apperceptive psychology.

The second branch of the Science of Teaching, Methods of Instruction, has reference to the several branches of knowledge and the best methods of presenting them to the learner. It embraces a discussion of the general nature of knowledge and its various branches, of the relation of

these different branches to the various faculties of the mind, the relative educational value of the different branches of study, the general principles and methods of instruction, and the specific application of these principles and methods in the actual instruction of the class-room.

While these two divisions of the Science of Teaching, Methods of Culture and Methods of Instruction, might seem to cover the entire ground of professional training, yet since this culture and instruction are to be given to children in a school, and this school is to be organized and governed, a school building to be erected, properly arranged, and furnished with suitable appliances, a new and important branch of the Science Teaching arises, which has been appropriately named School Economy. Under this head is embraced the discussion of school buildings and furniture, school organization, school employments, school government, school authorities, school systems, school hygiene, etc.

Supplementary to these three branches which cover the entire ground of the Science of Teaching, it is found of interest and value to teachers to understand the views of the eminent thinkers and educators of former times and of other countries. The teacher is thus enabled to trace the gradual rise and unfolding of truer methods in education, and from the false methods employed learn to avoid the errors which have marred and retarded the work of instruction through the ages gone by. Thus the History of Education becomes a valuable and even necessary part of the course of instruction in the education of teachers.

In addition to this, in every science there are great broad and underlying principles which show the relation of the several parts to one another and their genesis from more general and comprehensive ideas, thus giving organic unity and symmetry to the entire system. Such a discussion is usually known as the Philosophy of Science. Along

with the other sciences the Science of Pedagogy has also its philosophy, known as the Philosophy of Education. In this we reach the crowning branch of the subject, that which binds the various parts together in symmetry, beauty, and organic strength.

The entire course of pedagogical training adopted for this school is thus seen to be embraced under five heads: Methods of Culture, Methods of Instruction, School Economy, History of Education, and Philosophy of Education. This course is to be studied by the use of textbooks, by the hearing and reviewing of lectures, by work in the laboratory, work in the library, work in the manual shop, independent reading and investigation, and original experimentation and investigation in the direction of the nature of mental development and acquisition. The course in the Science of Teaching is thus seen to be broad, comprehensive, philosophical and practical, and adapted to the highest demands of modern education.

The Art of Teaching, as previously stated, consists in the application of the principles and methods of culture and instruction in the actual work of the school-room. Every art, in addition to a knowledge of its principles, is learned in two ways—by observation and by practice—and teaching is no exception to this statement. There is, therefore, to be connected with the Normal School a School of Observation and a School of Practice. The School of Observation is to be under the instruction of the most skilled and accomplished teachers that the city can afford. It is to be strictly a Model School in which the pupils of the Normal School may see exemplified, in the most practical and suggestive way, the methods and principles discussed in the Science of Teaching. Opportunity will be afforded to see the work of every grade and the teaching of every subject of the course of study for the elementary schools. This school it is expected will serve the additional

purpose of being a model of methods to the other teachers of the city who will visit it and obtain ideas and inspiration in their work. Indeed, this School of Observation, properly organized and managed, will be a centre of educational influence to the entire city.

After witnessing teaching in this School of Observation, the students of the Normal School are to have an opportunity to put in practice what they have learned and witnessed. They are to have an opportunity to show what they themselves can do as teachers with a class of children. They are to learn to do by doing as well as by thinking and seeing, and thus to show that they can make artistic use of their knowledge of the Science of Teaching. For this purpose a School of Practice, in addition to the School of Observation, is to be established in connection with the Normal School. In this School of Practice the students of the Normal School will practice the art of Teaching under the direction and guidance of experienced teachers, who, as Mentors, will point out their mistakes and direct them in their work. These two schools, the School of Observation and the School of Practice, are an essential part of the plan of the new organization; though, on account of unavoidable circumstances, it has been found necessary to combine the two schools for the present.

This brief statement indicates the nature of the course of professional training which has been arranged for the New Normal School. A comprehensive view showing the relation of the different parts of the Science of Teaching will be seen in the following outline:—

GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE SCIENCE OF TEACHING.

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Methods of Culture :— | 2. Methods of Instruction :— |
| 1. Physical culture. | 1. In language. |
| 2. Intellectual culture. | 2. In mathematics. |
| 3. Æsthetic culture. | 3. In physical sciences. |
| 4. Moral culture. | 4. In history, civics, etc. |
| 5. Religious culture. | 5. In the arts, etc. |

3. School Economy :— 4. History of Education :—

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. School preparation. | 1. Oriental education. |
| 2. School organization. | 2. Greek education. |
| 3. School employments. | 3. Roman education. |
| 4. School government. | 4. Mediæval education. |
| 5. School authorities. | 5. Renaissance education. |
| 6. School systems. | 6. Modern education. |
| 7. School hygiene. | |

5. The Philosophy of Education.

The distribution of these branches through the two years' course of instruction in the Normal School will be seen in the following outline. Changes may, of course, be made between the two years of instruction as may suit the convenience of the school program :—

THE FIRST YEAR.

1. Educational Psychology.
2. Methods of teaching the elements of knowledge :—
 - (a) Language.
 - (b) Number and form.
 - (c) Natural objects.
 - (d) Facts in human life, etc.
3. School Economy.
4. Methods of Teaching the following studies :—
 - (a) Natural History and Physiology.
 - (b) Elements of Arithmetic and Geometry,
 - (c) Reading and Elocution.
 - (d) Vocal Music.
 - (e) Modeling and Drawing.
 - (f) Sewing and Fitting and Cookery.
 - (g) Gymnastics and Physical Culture.
5. Philosophy and Methods of the Kindergarten.
6. Educational reading and investigation.
7. Discussion of Educational subjects.

THE SECOND YEAR.

1. The Philosophy of Education.
2. The History of Education.

3. Methods of Teaching (more advanced) :—

- (a) Arithmetic, Algebra and Geometry.
- (b) Physics and Chemistry.
- (c) Language and Literature.
- (d) History, Sociology and Civics.
- (e) Reading and Elocution.
- (f) Vocal Music.
- (g) Gymnastics and Physical Culture.

- 4. Observation of teaching in School of Observation.
- 5. Practice of Teaching in School of Practice.
- 6. Discussion of Observation and Practice work.
- 7. Educational reading, with discussions.
- 8. Original educational investigation.
- 9. Wood-work and preparation of apparatus and devices for teaching.

The Committee having charge of the school have shown a most commendable spirit in fitting up the institution to carry out this course of study. They have provided large laboratories and splendidly equipped them for instruction in the natural sciences, made provisions for an extensive library of pedagogical works, fitted up a shop for wood-work after the most approved models, and have made recommendations to the Board for additions to the building in order to increase the facilities for the thorough training of the students in their profession.

It will thus be seen that the course is comprehensive, scientific, and practical; and, when carried out with intelligence and enthusiasm, as the ability of the principal and faculty selected for the work gives an assurance that it will be, I believe that we shall have in this new Normal School as progressive and thorough a course in the professional training of teachers as can be found in any city in this country. Philadelphia is worthy of the best thought and practice in education that the country can afford; and she has the ability within her own borders of attaining to the highest standards of modern education.

As we have provided the most beautiful Normal School building that graces any city in the United States or even in the world, shall we not expect that in the near future we shall also have within this building a Normal School which for breadth and thoroughness of professional training shall stand without a superior in the civilized world, a school which shall be a source of educational power in the city and a centre of educational interest towards which the eyes of the entire country will be turned in admiration?

Permit me, in concluding this description of our new Normal School, to congratulate the Board of Public Education upon the spirit of progress manifested in the new movement which they inaugurated last year, and to add that I esteem it a privilege and an honor to be associated with them in the accomplishment of this work of reorganization which combines so many of the best educational traditions of the past with the advanced ideas of the present and the high aspirations for the future.

THE SCHOOL OF OBSERVATION.

The School of Observation is designed to aid the students in learning the art of teaching. Every art is more or less imitative. To sing well one should hear good singing; to play well it is of advantage to listen to the skilled performer; to become a great painter one should study the great masters. This principle is especially true in the art of teaching. While the fundamental source of power and skill lies in the grasp of the principles of education and the cultivation of that professional spirit which is known as "the spirit of the teacher," yet the observation of the work of an artist teacher will be found of great value in suggesting the correct application of the principles learned in the study of the science of teaching. These models suggest manner as well as method, and the

manner of a teacher in the presence of her class is almost as important as her method. Good models aid in the forming of ideals of excellence which lie at the basis of all successful work in any vocation. Thus like the hearing of good music to the singer or performer, the observation of good teaching not only affords a pattern of excellence but also becomes an inspiration to high personal attainment in the art. It is thus evident that in addition to a thorough study of educational principles and methods there should be an opportunity to observe intelligent, skillful and thorough work in the school-room. A School of Observation, as previously stated, is thus an indispensable part of the organization of a Normal School.

Such was the plan adopted by the Board in its reorganization of the Girls' Normal School. It was the purpose to make this School of Observation a model school in the strictest sense of the term. Its teachers were to be selected in view of the skill and intelligence of their work, and for their personal fitness to exemplify the methods of teaching which will be introduced into the public schools. Its principal was expected to be progressive in spirit, and familiar with and in accord with the best methods of the times, and one who, by her intelligence and sympathy, could direct and inspire her assistants in their work. The intention was that the school should be the ideal school of the city, a school which other teachers could visit with satisfaction and admiration, and to which we could point visitors as representing the best that Philadelphia could show in her public school work.

In order to carry out this plan the Normal School Committee, at the July meeting of the Board, 1893, presented a report, in which it was stated that "The Committee has determined that these Model Teachers (of the School of Observation) shall be chosen from a list to be submitted by the Superintendent of Schools; the persons

so nominated being such teachers now employed in any of our schools as he believes, from personal knowledge as well as general reputation, to be the best in the public service." This report was adopted by the Board, and a resolution passed directing the Superintendent to prepare the list at his earliest convenience.

This resolution imposed upon the Superintendent of Schools a most difficult and delicate duty which, on personal grounds, he would gladly have avoided. The delicacy of the duty was enhanced by the fact that there was already a School of Practice in charge of an estimable woman, of long experience and faithful service, who had gathered about her a corps of teachers familiar with and in sympathy with her methods of instruction and control, and that this school under this principal with newly-selected teachers was to be used for the present as the School of Observation. The Superintendent would, therefore, have preferred to defer this selection of new teachers until the arrangements were completed for the separation of the two schools, permitting the present teachers of the School of Practice to remain with their principal, and then making a selection of new teachers for the School of Observation.

It was, however, thought best by the Board that the reorganization be made without delay, and the Superintendent accepted the duty with a full appreciation of its difficulties and responsibilities. In the discharge of this duty he devoted many days to the critical observation of the work of the elementary schools and a careful consideration of the fitness of teachers for the position named. It was not possible for him to visit all the teachers of the city in order to make his selections; he therefore, from his own knowledge and upon information obtained from a variety of sources, prepared a list of such teachers as were thought to be adapted to Model School work. These

teachers were visited by the Superintendent, some of them three or four times, their methods carefully watched and weighed and compared, until the number required by the Committee had been selected.

The Superintendent endeavored to keep clearly before his mind the nature and the demands of the positions to be filled. The school is to be a School of Observation for the students of the Normal School, in which they can see exemplified in an intelligent and artistic manner the principles they have studied in the theory of teaching. It should thus be a Model School in the highest sense of the term,—a school in which the best teaching of the city can be observed. As such, it will be a centre of interest to the other teachers of our public schools, especially to the younger teachers, to which they can go and see the latest devices and methods presented in a thorough, finished, and artistic manner. Moreover, such a school will attract public attention and be visited not only by the friends of education in Philadelphia but also by teachers from other cities, who will take the methods here used as a measure of the best that Philadelphia can show in elementary instruction. It is thus a school in which teachers will be constantly on public exhibition subjected to the critical eyes, not only of the Normal School pupils, but also of the teachers of the city and of the entire country.

With such a view of the school and the high responsibilities of its teachers, the difficulty and delicacy of the task of the Superintendent will be somewhat appreciated. He was required to select from two thousand teachers, sixteen whom he thought best qualified to stand as the representatives of the teaching talent of Philadelphia, and to serve as models to the students of the Normal School. That he should make a selection which would meet with universal approval was not to be expected; even infinite wisdom could not have done that. Different persons with

equally good judgment in respect to teaching would often differ in their estimate of the relative merits of good teachers. The selections made represent the best judgment of the Superintendent, based upon a careful observation and comparison of the work of teachers who were supposed to be best fitted for the responsible position of Model School teachers.

The several considerations which guided the Superintendent in making his selections may be briefly stated as follows: First, women of good education with scholarly tastes and refined and pleasing manners; second, teachers familiar with those methods of teaching that represent the best modern ideas in elementary instruction; third, teachers whose work is attractive and artistic in manner, so as to exemplify good teaching and thus present a high ideal to the students of the Normal School; fourth, those who are sympathetic and attractive in their relations with their pupils, whose methods of control are simple and natural and adapted to mould the character of children, and who possess marked power of awakening and holding their interest. Moreover, it was also considered desirable to have as much variety in personal characteristics and methods in the various grades of the school as would be consistent with the foregoing qualifications, in order to furnish to young teachers different ideals of excellence. All these several elements and characteristics were taken into consideration in making the selections presented to the Committee. It is not assumed that those nominated are better instructors than many other teachers in the city, or that they have better methods or secure better results than many other teachers; but that, taking all the above requirements into consideration, they seem to be especially adapted to stand before the Normal students and the teachers of the city and exemplify the methods that we desire to be used in our public schools.

In making my recommendation to the Committee I endeavored to combine in about equal proportions a younger class of teachers for the lower grades and a rather more mature class for the higher grades. This part of my program was somewhat interfered with by the declination of several of the more experienced teachers, whose places had to be filled, as time was pressing, from a list of younger teachers, who, though gifted and skillful, gave the new faculty a younger average appearance than was the original purpose of the Superintendent. All the teachers selected, however, had established a reputation for their intelligence, culture, and skill in the schools in which they were teaching. The opinion of their principals, of my assistants who were familiar with their work, and of the members of the local boards for whom they had taught, confirmed my own judgment of their special fitness for the work. The teachers selected were unanimously approved by the Committee and the Board, and they entered upon the work immediately after the Christmas vacation. They are doing excellent work in their several positions, though, as might be expected, they are not yet working up to their own ideals or to the standards of excellence they attained in their own schools. As soon as the complete purpose of the Committee and the Board can be carried out, however, matters will be so adjusted that we shall have a model school whose work will command universal confidence and admiration. This School of Observation can be made the ideal school of the country, and we have the material in Philadelphia to make it such. No grander service to the public school system of the city can be rendered than by attaining this object.

THE SCHOOL OF PRACTICE.

The scheme of normal training as previously outlined, provides for a School of Practice distinct from and in

addition to a School of Observation. Such a separation of the two schools is a necessity in order to secure the best results in the education of teachers. An art after its principles are understood, as already stated, is learned in two ways,—by observation and by practice. Students of teaching need to see good teaching in a School of Observation as an ideal to direct and inspire their own work; and they need also to have an opportunity to put into practice their theoretical training by actual work in the classroom. They must learn to do by doing as well as by seeing and thinking. It is clear, therefore, that there should be a School of Practice connected with the Normal School.

The attempt has often been made to combine a School of Practice with a School of Observation; but usually with indifferent success. The genius and spirit of the two schools are so unlike that it is difficult if not impossible to harmonize their work. There can be no “model school” in the true sense of the term in a School of Practice. The same teachers, as a rule, are not adapted to fulfil the duties of the two offices. The model teacher is seldom fitted for a teacher in the School of Practice, and *vice versa*. The teacher in the Model School should be an artist; the teacher in the School of Practice should be a critic; and the critic and artist in Teaching, as in Literature, are rarely united in one person. The cast of mind, the habit of thought, the spirit in which the work is done, are all essentially different. The artist-teacher thinks alone of her pupils,—of the methods by which she can awaken their interest, unfold and train their powers of thought and observation and develop their character. She must be sympathetic in her nature, so as to be able to touch the secret springs of thought and feeling in the hearts of children; and she should possess the rare gifts of artistic manner and magnetic presence that command and

emphasize her methods to the beholder. The practice-teacher must think of the needs of the student-teacher, of her manner and method, her personal merits and defects, wherein she applies or violates the principles of instruction, and what suggestions should be made that will enable her to avoid her errors, correct her methods, and improve her manner of instruction and discipline. She need not be an artistic teacher herself any more than the great teachers of music need to be great singers, or great teachers of elocution need to excel in dramatic representation. She should understand the principles of teaching, be judicial in her habits of thought, a critical and intelligent observer quick to detect faults of manner and method, and a wise counsellor who can criticise severely and yet so sympathetically and justly that the student-teacher will not only see clearly her faults but be willing to make an earnest effort to correct them. So marked is this difference that it may be said that a teacher may be very successful in the School of Observation, and utterly fail in the School of Practice; and, on the other hand, a very successful teacher in the School of Practice may be entirely out of place in a School of Observation. The teacher in the School of Practice should be mature enough in character to command the confidence of student-teachers as an adviser; while the enthusiasm and sprightliness of youth may be an attraction to the teacher in the School of Observation. To give emphasis to my judgment in this matter, permit me to say that had I been asked to select teachers for a School of Practice I should have made a quite different selections from those made for the School of Observation.

It should be understood that I am speaking of an ideal organization such as we have the opportunity of carrying out in the new order of things in Philadelphia. Of course, I grant that fair work can be done with teachers fulfilling both functions, but it is not the high

artistic work at which we should aim when we have the opportunity of carrying out an ideal system. We are sometimes compelled by circumstances to work on lower planes with ordinary results; but the aim should be to stand on the highest planes and secure ideal results; and it is to this end that I am thinking and writing.

In this connection I deem it proper to call attention to essential limitations of School of Practice work. This limitation is intrinsic to the system, especially in a large city, and is therefore practically unavoidable. I refer to the necessarily limited amount of time that student-teachers can give to practice work in any ordinary School of Practice. This limitation, it will be seen, is due both to the number of student-teachers and the number of pupils in the School of Practice. In our Normal School there will be about 400 pupils each year to teach in the School of Practice. Suppose we have a School of Practice of twelve grades or divisions. This will give twelve times five, or sixty, hours of teaching a day, or $60 \times 5 = 300$ hours a week, or $300 \times 36 = 10,800$ hours a year. Dividing this by 400 we have only 27 hours of teaching for each pupil of the Normal School during the year! How much can a young woman learn about teaching in 27 hours of practice, or a little more than a week? If we should double the number of grades having a School of Practice of 24 grades, it would afford only about two weeks of practice to each student. In this estimate I have assumed that there are 36 teaching weeks in a year, which is fully as many as can be utilized by the Normal students.

Take another view of the subject. In order for a School of Practice to be of much value to the student-teacher she should have at least two hours practice a day for a half-school year. Now with 400 students and five school days a week of five hours each, and 18 weeks in the half year, this would require 72,000 hours of teaching.

Each grade of the School of Practice has five days in a week of five hours each and 36 weeks in the year, thus giving 900 hours in a year. Hence in order to give each student-teacher two hours a day for a half year it would take 72,000 divided by 900, or 80 grades; that is one Practice School of 80 grades, or five Practice Schools of 16 grades each. Or, reckoning in another way, suppose one-half of the 400 normal students, or 200, to be teaching for one-half of the year for two hours a day. This would require 400 hours a day; and since each grade has five hours a day it will require 400 divided by 5, or 80 grades, as already shown. To meet such a requirement is, of course, a practical impossibility; and thus the work of the student-teacher in the Practice School is readily seen to be inadequate for the acquisition of skill in the art of teaching.

This view may seem startling to those who have been accustomed to think of a School of Practice as the great means for the education of teachers; but a moment's thought will reconcile the mind to the fact and the legitimate inference to which it points. The inference is that the art of teaching is not to be learned in a School of Practice. In this respect Teaching stands on a par with such other professions as Law, Medicine, etc. The law-student may have a little practice in his moot court, but he becomes a successful lawyer only by actual practice in his office and in the real courts of the city. He learns the principles of law from lectures and text-books; he becomes a successful lawyer by observing the practice of the courts and by actual experience in legal business. The medical student does not acquire skill in his profession by the treatment of so many cases of measles, smallpox, typhoid and scarlet fever; but with a knowledge of the structure and functions of the body, the character of disease and the influence of remedies, combined with the observation of

clinics, he goes out into the community and becomes a skillful practitioner only after years of practice. And in the same way the teacher must depend on actual practice in the schools based upon a clear comprehension of the principles of education, to secure any high skill in teaching.

It should also be stated that less emphasis is placed on the Practice School to-day than in the early days of Normal School training. At that time it was regarded as essential to have the Normal students teach under proper supervision and guidance. The value of the principles of education and their relation to the art of teaching had not yet dawned upon the minds of most normal school educators. In fact, there was no body of principles to be presented to the students of the normal school. No instruction was given in respect to the nature of the mind, or the methods of training its faculties, or the relation of knowledge to the different mental powers, or the principles of instruction in the different branches. Now all this is changed. Great progress has been made in Normal training during the last fifty years. Teaching has become a science with a great body of principles drawn from the study of the nature of the mind and the laws of its development. It is seen by educators that all intelligent and successful teaching must be based on an intelligent conception of these principles. In teaching, as in the other practical arts, it is more and more clearly understood that science is the basis of art and gives perfection to it. Surveying was once taught on the field with the surveyor; to-day the science of geometry and trigonometry give the pupil skill in field work. Law and medicine were once learned in the office of the practitioner; now a thorough course at the university in the principles of law and the facts of medicine is regarded as the most efficient means of laying the foundations for professional success. And so with the

practical art of teaching. The source of power and skill lies in the thorough comprehension and assimilation of the principles of education and instruction. Without this the practice of years will not give high success in the art; with it the Normal pupil, possessing any natural fitness for the work, goes out into the school with almost immediate success. The Practice School has thus diminished in value as the science of education has been unfolded; and whereas it was formerly regarded as the foundation of Normal training, it is now considered merely an adjunct, varying in value with the thoroughness of the training in the principles of education.

The School of Practice is not therefore to be considered the basis of a teacher's education, but only a valuable addition to the training of the Normal School. The fact that in a large school of eight hundred pupils but little time can be devoted to the practice of teaching, is not to be regarded with so much regret as some would suppose. The great reliance in Normal training is on the development in the mind of the student-teachers of a clear conception of the principles of teaching and the methods of applying these principles, supplemented by an opportunity to see them artistically applied in the Model School; and if students thus trained have the natural ability, they will become successful teachers even if they have only a few weeks' experience in the School of Practice.

I close this discussion with the suggestion that it will be found advisable to vary the amount of time required of the student-teachers in the School of Practice. The girl with a natural aptitude for teaching, will demonstrate her ability to teach in a comparatively short time. I would excuse her from further work in the School of Practice and give her time to the girl with less natural ability, who has greater need of the direction and instruction of the practice-teacher. Such an arrangement

will partly compensate for the limited amount of time for practice-teaching which the ordinary School of Practice affords.

ABSENT TEACHERS AND SUBSTITUTES.

Important action was taken by the Board during the past year in respect to the absence of teachers and the employment of properly-qualified substitutes. For many years there seems to have been no definite rule of the Board regulating the absence of teachers or providing for competent substitutes to take charge of their classes when absent. The custom was for the teachers to obtain a leave of absence from the local Board, and to select and pay their own substitutes such compensation as might be mutually agreed upon. The consequences of such a custom, as might be expected, were not always in the interest of the schools. While the large majority of the teachers were conscientious and devoted to their duties, and were seldom absent from their classes, a considerable number were careless and inconsiderate. Local Boards, generally through sympathy, though in some cases through less laudable motives, sometimes permitted irregularities and long-continued absences that were subversive of the public interests. Soon after entering upon my duties my attention was called to several of these cases of frequent and prolonged absence. In one case I found that a teacher had been absent from her duties, by permission of her Board, for nearly two years, and had been drawing her pay regularly during this time and paying a substitute to do her work. In dealing with a certain case of long-continued absence, the Superintendent compelled a resignation of a teacher by threatening to report it to the Board. Other cases of even more flagrant disregard of a sense of duty and honor were discovered. The abuses of the system are graphically summarized by Mr. Edward Gideon, Supervising Principal of the Meade School, in his paper before the

Educational Club, as follows: "Unjustifiable absence from school with the authorities cognizant of the fact; the meagre pay to substitutes with its varying rates; the lack of scholarship in the substitute; the failure, real or pretentious, to secure an authorized person; the forgetfulness of pecuniary obligations;—these were the conditions, not theories, that confronted the Board of Public Education when called upon to legislate upon the subject."

The attention of the Board was called to the matter, and after a very careful and thoughtful discussion of the subject, they adopted a rule to govern the absence of teachers and the employment and compensation of substitutes substantially as follows:—

1. Permission for teachers to be absent for five days may be granted by the local Boards.

2. Permission to be absent for a period longer than five days, for personal sickness or for sickness in the teacher's immediate family, shall be granted by the local Boards subject to the approval of the Superintendent.

3. Teachers absent for personal sickness shall forfeit one four-hundredth of their annual salary, per diem. Teachers absent for any other reason shall forfeit one three-hundredth of their annual salary, per diem.

4. Only properly-certified teachers shall act as substitutes, and these shall be paid by the Board of Public Education at the following rates: \$1.00 for kindergartens, \$1.50 for primary grades, and \$1.75 for grammar grades.

5. Leave of absence for not over one-half-day, for school purposes, may be granted by the Superintendent on application. Leave of absence for a longer time, for a similar purpose, may be granted by the Committee on Grammar, Secondary and Primary Schools, on the recommendation of the Superintendent. Where such leave of absence shall be granted, there shall be no deduction from the salary of the absentee.

In order to carry out this rule the Superintendent prepared blanks to be filled out by the teacher and signed by the proper authorities, one copy of which was to be retained in the office and the other returned to the teacher or local Board. The operation of the rule has been, in the main, satisfactory. President Sheppard in his report says, "The rules established by the Board last year in regard to the absence of teachers and the employment of substitute teachers have been beneficial by diminishing the number of absentees." His figures show that there has been "an improvement of about 25 per cent. under the operation of the new rule."

The principal cause which prevents the entirely satisfactory working of the new rule is the unequal distribution of substitute teachers throughout the city. In some sections there is no difficulty in securing substitute teachers promptly; but in other sections great difficulties are experienced on account of their remoteness from the schools. Frequently, after spending two or three hours in an unsuccessful search for substitutes, the classes have to be dismissed for want of a teacher. To remedy this difficulty, the Superintendent suggested that substitutes be invited to meet at some conveniently-located centres in several of the sections. This plan was adopted in a number of cases, and worked satisfactorily. If the plan could be made general it would secure qualified substitutes for every class in the city whose regular teacher was absent by reason of sickness, and would prevent any classes from being dismissed on account of the absence of the teacher. A practical objection to this plan of meeting at centres is the uncertainty of employment of the substitutes thus meeting, an objection especially strong when the substitute resides at a considerable distance from the centre, thus consuming in transit not only two or three hours of her time, but also subjecting her to the expense of car-fare. Besides it does

not seem just that the teachers should be required to risk their time and money in this way without some slight compensation. In view of these considerations, it has occurred to the Superintendent that if the following addition could be made to our present rules, we should have one of the simplest, most inexpensive and efficient systems of providing for substitute teachers that is in use in any large city in the country :—

1. Convenient centres in some school-building to be selected at which substitutes shall meet every morning at a quarter before 9 o'clock.

2. A list of substitutes sufficient to supply the needs of the schools to be selected for each section.

3. Substitutes thus selected to meet at the centres designated every morning at a quarter before 9 o'clock, and remain, if not required for work, until 10 o'clock.

4. Every substitute thus meeting, when not required for work, to receive a small compensation for each day she is present at the centre selected for the time designated.

An arrangement of this kind would secure beyond any question a sufficient number of substitutes to supply all vacancies that occur by reason of the illness of the regular teachers, and make it absolutely certain that no pupils shall go untaught for want of a teacher. Unless some such system as I have indicated is adopted, there will always be some classes in some schools that will have to be dismissed when the regular teacher is absent. The plan adopted by two or three cities is that a certain number of substitutes are placed on full pay and located at different school-centres where they can be obtained when needed. Such an arrangement would also solve the substitute problem satisfactorily, but it would be far more expensive than the plan above proposed.

The new rule of the Board having aroused a good deal of discussion on the part of teachers and attracted

the attention of the public through the press, I have thought it might be a matter of interest to give the arrangement made by the principal cities of the country in respect to the question so that comparisons can be made by those who are interested in the matter.

Boston.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in Boston is as follows:—

1. Teachers may be granted leave of absence for one week (which may be extended to two weeks) in case of personal illness or on account of the critical illness or of death of a member of the immediate family of the teacher. The request for absence is made through the Committee on the School to the Board of Education.

2. Substitutes are required to hold certificates of the proper grade in order that they may be employed in place of an absent teacher. The names of substitutes are placed on the pay-roll as in case of regular teachers.

3. Substitutes are paid by the teachers in whose places they are employed. The per diem is determined by dividing the regular teacher's annual salary by four hundred.

4. Teachers having served nine years may, by action of the Board, be granted leave of absence for one year on half-pay, the other half of her salary being paid by the Board to the substitute.

5. If a teacher at the end of a year's absence on half-pay is unable to return to duty, such teacher shall be honorably discharged from the service.

Cleveland.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in Cleveland is as follows:—

1. All substitutes must have certificates the same as regular teachers.

2. All requests for substitutes must be entered at the Superintendent's office and directions are given from there for supplying a place in case of temporary vacancies.

3. Substitutes are paid at a fixed compensation of \$2.00 per day each, except that substitutes in the High Schools are paid at the rate they formerly received when teaching there. Only the amount which is paid the substitute is deducted from the pay of the regular teacher, provided she is absent because of sickness or by permission of the Superintendent.

4. The Superintendent says: "We deal rather generously with teachers who are absent for cause, and we encourage the absence of teachers for study or foreign travel." The whole matter rests in the discretion of the Superintendent.

St. Louis.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in St. Louis is as follows:—

1. A limited number of properly-certified teachers are required to report to the Superintendent's office each morning to act as substitutes to fill temporary vacancies.

2. Principals of the District Schools usually go to the nearest telephone and telephone to the Superintendent's office or send a pupil, and a substitute is sent to fill the vacancy.

3. Substitutes receive \$2.00 per diem for teaching and \$1.00 when they are not sent out. They are paid by the School Board.

4. Regular teachers are allowed half-pay for absence for sickness for a period of twenty-five days or less.

5. There is no limit to the length of time a regular teacher may be absent for cause.

6. No deduction is made for two days' absence of a teacher on account of death in the family.

Chicago.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in Chicago is as follows :—

1. Graduates of the Girls' High School who have not taught are assigned to the different schools throughout the city and supply temporary vacancies on account of sickness. These teachers, called "cadets," are paid at the rate of \$1.50 per day when they substitute for absent teachers.

2. Experienced teachers are also employed as substitutes at a salary of \$70.00 a month, one substitute being allowed for each of the seven districts into which the city is divided. The Superintendent is also authorized to employ other substitutes, paying at the rate of \$3.50 and \$4.00 per day.

3. Teachers who are absent on account of sickness receive their pay for two weeks, less \$1.50 per day for the substitute's pay. When absent for any other cause, they lose their entire salary for the entire time. All substitutes are paid by the School Department.

4. Regular teachers can obtain a leave of absence for any period not exceeding four months for any reason satisfactory to the Superintendent.

5. The attendance of the substitutes is secured by communicating with the office by telephone, and the Superintendent notifies them by telegram. Those special substitutes who receive compensation throughout the month whether they teach or not, report at the Superintendent's office when they are not otherwise detailed for duty.

6. The "cadets" who enter the Training School and receive instruction in the forenoon and practice in the afternoon, receive 75 cents per day until they complete their course at the Training School; after that they receive \$1.00 per day until they receive a permanent position. While attending the training school they are not used as substitutes in the forenoon.

Denver.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in Denver is as follows :—

1. All substitutes are certified teachers. While waiting for regular appointment they work temporarily, when wanted, at \$60.00 per school

month, or \$3.00 per day, the lowest salary given. Their attendance at the proper school building is directed from the Superintendent's office by telephone.

2. A regular teacher can be absent, for sickness only, five days in any one year without loss of pay. She can be absent for sickness only fifteen days longer, during which fifteen days the absentee is allowed the difference between the regular pay and the substitute's \$3.00 per diem. At the end of the month the name is dropped from the roll. Sickness of the teacher is the only accepted cause for absence. Absence for the sickness or death of a friend or relative, or for any other cause, forfeits all pay.

St. Paul.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in St. Paul is as follows :—

1. A list of accredited teachers is appointed by the Board upon the recommendation of the Superintendent, from whom he appoints substitutes from day to day. If this list is not sufficiently large he appoints such others as he may find. Much of the substitute work is done by undergraduates of the Teachers' Training School.

2. Substitutes are not required to have the same certificates as regular teachers.

3. Their attendance at the proper school is secured upon application of the principal to the Superintendent's office, usually by means of telephone. A certain number of substitutes report there each morning, and the office is in telephonic connection with the Teachers' Training School.

4. A substitute teacher is paid according to the minimum of the salary schedule of the teacher for whom she is teaching. This is deducted from the pay of the regular teacher. Substitutes from the Teachers' Training School receive no pay.

5. The Superintendent writes, "Generally our rule has been that for twenty days teachers may be absent for cause; such cause being either personal sickness or death in the immediate family. Our rule in this respect, however, is at present in a state of transition. What result will be evolved I am unable to predict."

Brooklyn.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in Brooklyn is as follows :—

1. If a teacher is sick, she may be absent without losing salary fifteen school days each year, otherwise she loses the substitute's pay, which amounts to \$1.00, \$1.50, \$2.00, or \$2.50 per day, according to the grade taught.

2. Only persons who have passed the Superintendent's Examinations for Teachers' Certificates are authorized to substitute.

3. The principal of the school from which a teacher is absent sends for the nearest substitute.

4. A Committee of the Board of Education is proposing changes to existing rules, so that the absent teacher will lose half her salary, and the substitute will receive a fixed rate of pay directly from the Board.

Milwaukee.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in Milwaukee is as follows :—

1. Substitutes must have diplomas or certificates as regular teachers have. A certain number must report at the Superintendent's office every morning and afternoon.

2. They are paid as if teaching regularly, whether at work or not, so long as they report as required. They are paid by the Board of Education, as regular teachers are.

3. A principal needing a substitute sends directly to the office and a substitute suited to the grade is sent at once by the Superintendent.

4. Regular teachers are granted leave of absence without loss of pay, for a period not exceeding *three* days to attend funerals of members of their family. In case of sickness of self, absence for forty half-days is granted, during which absence only the substitute's pay (\$1.50 per diem) is deducted. In case of further absence all pay is forfeited.

5. Teachers who have taught twelve to fifteen years are, on petition, granted leave of absence, if they need rest, for three months on half-pay. Others are sometimes granted leave of absence without pay.

Cincinnati.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in Cincinnati is as follows :—

1. Regular teachers may be absent, at the pleasure of the Superintendent, but not for a longer period than six months, without consent of the Board of Education.

2. In case of absence, the regular teacher pays the lowest per diem of the position filled by the substitute. The remainder of the salary is retained by the regular teacher, upon the physician's certificate continued for forty days.

3. Substitutes are sent for by the principal, who has a list of unemployed teachers furnished to him by the Superintendent.

4. Substitutes are required to have the same qualifications as regular teachers possess.

5. Regular teachers are not permitted to be absent at all without loss of salary, in part, to the substitute.

Indianapolis.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in Indianapolis is as follows :—

1. Regular teachers are permitted to be absent on account of personal sickness, or sickness in the immediate family, or in emergencies; but, in case of absence, the regular teacher pays the substitute a per diem of \$2.50, as agreed upon by the Board.

2. The absent teacher sends word to the clerk, who immediately calls a substitute adapted to the grade, and sends her to take charge of the absent teacher's class.

3. The substitute is not required to possess the same qualifications or certificate as regular teachers have.

4. Regular teachers are not permitted to be absent at all without loss of salary, in part, to the substitute.

Baltimore.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in Baltimore is as follows:—

1. Regular teachers, absent on account of sickness or otherwise, furnish a substitute who, in case of sickness of the regular teacher, receives \$1.00 a day; but, if the regular teacher is absent from other cause than sickness, she pays her full per diem to the substitute for each day's service.

2. If possible, the regular teacher notifies her principal beforehand that she expects to be absent, in which case a substitute is sent for by the principal to be present at the opening of the session following. Otherwise the janitor is sent for a substitute, who takes charge of the regular teacher's class as soon as possible.

3. Substitutes are required to have the same qualifications as regular teachers possess.

4. No rule of the Board permits absence of the teacher without loss of salary, in part, to the substitute.

Washington.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in Washington is as follows:—

1. Teachers may be absent for cause for thirty days; but they must furnish substitutes, and they pay to the substitutes one-half the regular teacher's salary per diem.

2. The substitutes are High School graduates applying for positions as teachers. Those who do good work are trained a little by the Superintendent, and are required to visit schools that they may learn about school organization and methods of teaching. They are not required to have certificates of qualification.

3. Substitutes report, every morning, at designated centres, unless they can be reached quickly by telephone.

4. They receive one-half the per diem of the teacher for whom they substitute.

San Francisco.—The arrangement in respect to substitutes in San Francisco is as follows:—

1. They have a class of thirty substitutes whose appointment is the first step towards election as regular teachers.

2. The substitutes must have the same certificates as the regular teachers.

3. The substitutes report at the office of the Superintendent every morning at a quarter before nine o'clock and remain an hour, for which they are paid \$1.00 a day, even if not sent out to teach.

4. The compensation of a substitute when teaching is about the same as that of the regular teacher. It is paid by the Department of Education.

It will thus be seen that the question of regulating the absence of teachers and providing for substitutes has occupied the attention of the school authorities in all the principal cities of the country. In many of these cities, being much smaller than ours, substitutes are readily reached by telephone, but that would be impossible in many cases in Philadelphia. It is also seen that the plan of meeting at one or more centres, which I have suggested, is adopted by several cities. The plan of paying a small compensation to substitute teachers who meet at the centres, even if they are not required to teach, is also quite common to the different cities. In several cases the regulations deal a little more liberally with absent teachers than our own rules, but in other cases they are more exacting than our own.

A careful comparison of our own rules with those of the other cities will, I think, lead to the conclusion that in most respects our rules are best adapted to our own needs and circumstances. Some of their arrangements, such as having substitutes assemble at the Superintendent's office to be called for by telephone, would be practicable with sections not too remote from the office, provided we had the telephone service. The one feature in which the regulations of the several cities are more efficient than ours is that of having substitutes meet at convenient centres and the payment of substitutes for such meeting even when not required to teach. If our Board would add these two features to our rules, as I have previously recommended, we would have a system at once simple, inexpensive, and efficient.

WOOD-WORK IN GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

Desiring to see an extension of the industrial element of education in our schools I last summer presented an elaborate report to the Board discussing the propriety of the introduction of some form of wood-work for the boys

of the grammar grades. The preparation of this report led me to examine the past action of the Board upon the subject of industrial education, and I was deeply interested in noticing the advanced position which our city has occupied in the matter. Indeed our records indicate that Philadelphia has led the other cities of the country in the introduction of industrial education into the public schools. If any of these cities have subsequently surpassed us, it is because we have not carried forward the work thus early begun.

From the foundation of the city to the present day the idea of industrial education has been a prominent one in the minds of our people. William Penn in his "Frame of Laws" to the Assembly directs, among other things, that the "Governor and Provincial Council shall erect and order all public schools." In compliance with the requirement the Assembly passed a law directing "that all persons in this Province and Territories thereof having children shall cause such to be instructed in reading and writing and that they then be taught some useful trade or skill, that the poor may work to live, and the rich if they become poor may not want." Thus at this early date, 1683, Philadelphia placed herself emphatically upon the side of industrial education in the public schools. While I have not the data to trace the gradual development of the idea, there is reason to believe that it was kept prominent before the minds of the people of the city and frequently appeared in some form in the schools. Mr. Alcott, the Sage of Concord, who visited Philadelphia in 1831, speaks of a school in Germantown which combined manual labor with study,—a novelty to him coming from Boston, and one with which naturally he was not favorably impressed. "The Manual Labor Academy," he says, "contains thirty-three pupils who are defraying by their labor the expense of their education. It is under the control of the Orthodox,

and many of the pupils are preparing for the ministry. Their employment, besides their studies, is agriculture and carpentry; recently the making of hat-boxes has been introduced."

While the development of the idea of industrial education proceeded somewhat slowly, the interest of the Board of Education in it was manifest at an early day, and shows a progressive and enlightened spirit which is creditable to the city. I find by the records of the Board that as early as 1875 a Committee on Industrial Art Education was appointed, and that arrangements were made with the Towne Scientific School for the education of ten boys from the grammar schools each year; and also that the Board was considering an offer from the School of Design for the admission of ten girls a year in that institution. These schools were private institutions designed to give technical training in its relation to the industrial arts. In 1876, M. Hall Stanton, President of the Board, in his Annual Report, speaks of the progress of industrial education during the past year, and says, "I am of opinion that the day is not far distant when there will be grafted upon our system a practical mode of technical study." And again he says, "There is an urgent demand for the encouragement of industrial studies in this and all manufacturing centres. Industrial science should be popularized for the youth, so simplified as to develop their perceptive faculties and elevate their taste; and if ever grafted into the general system of education administered by the Board, I have no shadow of doubt its benefits would be quickly apparent."

Thus did the President of the Board voice the sentiment of its members and of the friends of popular education in this city, and pioneer the way for the development of the next few years. From 1876 to 1880 pupils of the Grammar Schools were sent annually to the School of

Design, where they received very thorough training in drawing, modeling and other forms of technical training. In 1880 Mr. Charles Leland laid before the Committee on Industrial Art Education a system of manual training which he had been instrumental in successfully introducing into schools in England. The Committee were so favorably impressed with the idea and the system that, with the approval of the Board, they immediately arranged to have it made a part of the regular course of instruction in the public school system of the city. A school was organized, called the Public School of Industrial Art, which proved a conspicuous success from the very beginning. Mr. Leland, its principal, was not only an intelligent theorist, but a practical thinker, familiar with art work, and was thus enabled to put his theories into immediate and successful operation. Referring to this school Mr. Edward T. Steel, President of the Board of Public Education, says in his report of 1881, "It has now come to be generally conceded among enlightened people everywhere that manual training must be a part of any system of education which can claim to serve its true purpose, to develop the faculties fully and equally." The school of Mr. Leland was, so far as I can ascertain, the first public manual training school in the country. The unique and practical character of its work not only attracted attention in Philadelphia, but also gave a wonderful impulse to the introduction of the manual element of education as a part of the public school system in the United States.

The success of this School of Industrial Art served to develop a sentiment in favor of a more general introduction of manual training in the public schools. In his report of 1880, Mr. Edward T. Steel voices the gradually developing sentiments of the Board in emphatic language. "The question of establishing a system of industrial

education," he says, "is pressing itself upon the consideration of our committees, and is conceded to be a problem which must be solved in the affirmative." Further he says, "Intellectual and manual education should be regarded as equally necessary to the welfare and safety of the State, and should command equal opportunity of acquisition." In his report of 1882, referring to a suggestion that a large lot of ground be transferred to the Department of Education for school purposes, he says, "It is hoped that this will be done, and that a High School, combining a School of Technology, will be erected upon it." In his report of 1883 he makes an earnest plea for the establishment of a Manual Training High School. His words are, "A school with all the equipments necessary to this instruction is one of the greatest needs of the city." He discusses the principles of manual instruction, shows the value of "manual and mental co-education," which is destined to become the system of general education of the future, and gives a detailed description of the kind of school needed, saying the "work should be ample and provided with machinery for the manipulation of metal, wood and textile fabrics."

In his report of 1884 he congratulates the Board on the action they had taken towards the introduction of manual training "as a part of general education," and says that the "appropriation so liberally made by Councils will enable the Board to make a beginning with manual training in the regular school curriculum." In 1883 Philadelphia elected a Superintendent of Schools, and in his first report, presented in the fall of 1884, Mr. MacAlister strongly indorses the position of Mr. Steel, and presents some very cogent reasons in indorsement of the proposed action of the Board for the establishment of a Manual Training School.

In 1885, a Manual Training School for boys was established, the phenomenal success of which has occasioned

the organization of several other similar schools and given a wide reputation to our city in that line of work. The school was organized with Lieutenant Crawford as principal, whose previous training especially fitted him to arrange its courses of study and properly co-ordinate its intellectual and manual elements. In his first report, dated December 31, 1885, he shows a clear conception of the object of the school and the basis upon which the success of the experiment was assured. Speaking of the "educational value of Manual Training," he says, the experience of the few months since the opening of the school would seem to point to a complete confirmation of these facts :—

1. That the alternation of hand with head-work, makes them mutually restful and beneficial.
2. It gives to the pupil a clearer conception of the purposes of education, and of what really constitutes it.
3. It teaches habits of accuracy, industry and physical activity; dignifies and elevates labor; develops the creative faculty, and begets a feeling of confidence and independence based upon the conscious possession of useful practical knowledge.

After two years of service Mr. Crawford was succeeded by Mr. Wm. L. Sayre, to whose energy, enthusiasm, and intelligent grasp of the manual movement the success of the school is largely due. In 1892 the popularity of the school had become so great that the demand for admission exceeded its capacity, and it became necessary to establish a second school of the kind which, under the wise supervision of Dr. Henderson, has also attained a high standing in our city.

The establishment of the system of manual training schools of higher grade was thus the result of persistent effort of the leading members of the Board continued through a number of years. The movement was especially aided by the President, Mr. Steel, who, in his report of 1885, congratulates the Board upon the fruition of their

labors, saying, "the most important step has been the establishment of a Manual Training School as a part of the public schools of the city. To our sister city, Baltimore, belongs the honor of having first organized a public school of this kind, but Philadelphia comes next in order." The movement was aided by public-spirited men, not members of the Board of Public Education, among whom should be mentioned Col. Chas. H. Banes, through whose influence an appropriation was obtained from Councils, which made the establishment of the school possible at that time.

It is thus seen, though it has not been so understood outside of our city, that Philadelphia has an honorable record in relation to the manual element of education. Aside from her earlier influence in this direction, our records show that manual training, in its modern significance, was introduced into our public school system through the Public School of Industrial Art in 1880. Sewing was introduced into the Girls' High and Normal School in 1880, and into the Grammar Schools in 1885; cooking was introduced into the Girls' Normal School in 1886, and into the Grammar Schools in 1887; a Manual Training School of higher grade was established in 1885, and Sloyd was introduced into the James Forten Elementary Manual Training School in 1892.

With such a record in favor of manual training and the industrial element in education we need to take one more step, and that is the introduction of exercises in wood-work for boys in our Grammar Schools. I have discussed this matter so fully in my special report to the Board last summer, that it is not necessary for me to continue the argument here. The girls of our Grammar Schools have been favored by the introduction of exercises in sewing; we want some manual exercises for our boys while the girls are being instructed in sewing. So far as I

know this recommendation meets the cordial approval of the members of the Board; the practical question is, How shall such exercises be introduced? Here we are immediately confronted with the fact of large extra expenses. Shops are to be fitted up and special teachers are to be employed at a liberal compensation. Just what to recommend under these circumstances it is difficult to decide. The ideal thing would be to obtain an appropriation from Councils and employ a corps of thoroughly trained teachers to take charge of the work, and this, I think, should be our first effort. In making this suggestion, I do not forget the pressing need for large expenditures each year for new buildings to accommodate the growing school population, nor the several hundred thousand dollars required for the erection of the new building for the Boys' Central High School. But the advantages of this form of manual training for the boys of our Grammar Schools are so great that a liberal appropriation for its introduction will be money so well applied that I believe that if the matter is presented to Councils in its true light the money can be secured. Councils have shown a commendable liberality in their school appropriations during the last several years, and I believe that they will recognize the great value of the introduction of this element of industrial training and give it their support.

Should it be thought to be impracticable to attempt to secure an appropriation from Councils, or should they decline to make an appropriation, I then recommend that the experiment be tried on a simpler and more economical basis. Many of our new school-buildings contain large and well-lighted and ventilated basements, which could with comparatively small expense be fitted up for shop-work. In respect to teachers I believe that there are quite a large number of supervising principals who, with some knowledge of the use of tools and a comprehensive knowledge

of educational principles, could themselves introduce a well-graded system of manual work adapted to the wants of the boys of the grammar schools. This is the way in which the work was introduced so successfully into the London Public Schools, the most successful teachers having had no previous training in manual work of this kind. In all educational work the intelligence of the mature and thoughtful teacher is often worth far more than the technical skill of the person who has taken the specific course; and I believe it to be especially true in this case. I have discussed this matter with several of our supervising principals, and I find them not only willing but eager to try the experiment. In addition to this we shall soon have a number of graduates of our Normal School who have taken a regular course in shop-work. In planning the new course of study for the Normal School I made special provisions for a specific course of instruction in wood-working. A large, well-lighted and thoroughly equipped shop has been fitted up, and a competent instructor secured; and the young ladies who will graduate in June are taking a course in manual work in this shop. So that in a few years we shall have a large number of well-trained teachers who can assist in giving instruction in this branch of the grammar school course. In many cases this will involve no additional expense, as the teacher can give instruction in manual work while the sewing teacher is giving instruction to her class in sewing. And so, even though it may not be thought advisable to ask Councils to make an additional appropriation for the purpose, I recommend that the work be introduced in one or two schools during the coming school year. The experiment thus made can be carefully watched and will be a guide to us for future action. We shall be able to demonstrate to the public the value of the work and create a sentiment that will aid us in securing such additional appropriations from Councils as may be

needed for the general introduction of the work throughout the city.

NATURE STUDY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

In my report of last year I referred to the importance of a more general introduction of the elements of natural science into the public schools. In speaking of the value of this subject in elementary instruction, I remarked that "a systematic course of instruction in the elements of Natural Science should be added to the curriculum. A knowledge of things and their qualities lies at the basis of all knowledge. Such knowledge constitutes the very alphabet of all higher mental development and acquisition. A child's education begins with the observation and investigation of the things of the material world. This is the natural method of mental development, and should be continued in the work of the public schools. Children should be taught to read the book of nature as well as the printed pages of the school-room."

It was my purpose during the year to prepare a course of instruction in the subject to guide our teachers in the work; but so many more pressing duties have demanded my attention that it has been impossible to carry out this intention. Special efforts have been made, however, to cultivate a sentiment among our teachers for such instruction. In a number of schools the subject has been intelligently introduced, but in the large majority of them the work in this line is not satisfactory. Last fall at several conferences with the leading teachers of the city, called to consider the educational work presented at the World's Fair, special attention was directed to the exhibits of cities noted for their work in the study of natural objects. Subsequently in issuing a new edition of the Course of Study for the Primary and Secondary grades I took occasion to preface it with an article showing the

relation of "Nature Study" to instruction in language in the primary grades. After describing the general character of the work I remarked:—

"All these topics may be embraced under the general term of Nature Study, a most important element in the work of the primary school. One of the reforms of modern education is the emphasis given to this work. To omit it is to lose an important factor in primary education. Not only is the knowledge which it imparts of value, but it is an indispensable source of discipline to the young mind. The two mental processes especially developed by nature study are *observation* and *description*, while the phenomena of nature may also be used to awaken the power of reflection.

"In imparting the instruction outlined, the teacher should always remember that her work should be given in the concrete. There must be real plants, minerals and, so far as possible, animals in the school-room. When the object cannot be secured, the next best thing is the picture of the object. No dependence must be placed on mere description by teacher or text-book, for this to the child is often a mere combination of words without ideas. Pupils should be encouraged to obtain the objects for themselves, as they will thus have additional interest in the study of them. So in respect to the physical phenomena—children should be led to observe the weather, to notice the changes in temperature, the changes of the moon, the motions of the stars, etc. In this way a foundation for real knowledge is laid as well as a taste for scientific investigation that may be of great value to pupils in future years."

I subsequently met the principals and supervising principals and explained the character of the work, suggesting to them to prepare outlines of exercises for the use of their teachers, and urging them to use all reasonable efforts for a more general introduction of the study

of natural objects into our elementary schools. An effort was thus made to create a sentiment that would bear fruit in the immediate future. It is especially gratifying to report that my efforts in this direction have been cordially seconded by the principal of our new Normal School, who arranged to have his teachers of Natural History and Physics give a series of practical lessons to the teachers of the Model School to aid them in presenting the subject to their classes. To this series of lessons and lectures the authorities of the Normal School very kindly invited a supervising principal from each section of the city, a favor which would have been more widely extended had the lecture-room been large enough to accommodate a larger class. These lessons and lectures have been highly appreciated by the teachers who have heard them, and will serve to deepen the interest in the subject and give added qualifications for a more general introduction of nature study into the public schools of the city. I trust that arrangements can be made to have these lectures repeated during the next school year, so that more of our principals and supervising principals may receive the benefit of the instruction.

THE HUMANISTIC ELEMENT IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

While I thus urge the introduction of more nature study in the public schools, I also appreciate the necessity of guarding against carrying this work to excess. No greater harm could be done to our schools than to materialize the course of instruction, and thus crowd out the human element in primary education. To make Natural History the only or even the principal basis of language work with children would be a monstrous error in education. This is evident from the natural development of a child's mind, which indicates the correct basis of school instruction. A child's knowledge consists not

only of the objects of the physical world, but also of the things that belong to the world of mind. Children are interested in persons and their actions and feelings as well as in stones, plants and animals. They have ideas, thoughts and feelings of their own, to which they naturally give expression. Children are thus early interested in what may be called the humanities in education. It is, therefore, evident that the actions of persons, their thoughts and feelings, incidents in child-life, the social and moral actions of children, their plays and pastimes, etc., should afford material for language work in the primary grades. Hence stories of children and adults, biographies, fables, fairy stories, poetry, etc., are to be largely used in the work in language.

Thus the study of the things belonging to the mind world as well as those belonging to the material world is appropriate for children. These subjects of the world of mind are presented in the form of narratives, and thus narration as well as description should enter into primary instruction in language. These subjects also, dealing with the thoughts of mankind, awaken the power of thought in the minds of the pupils, and thus give culture to the faculty of reflection. And so while nature study brings into play the processes of observation and description, the use of the human element in instruction calls into exercise the child's powers of narration and reflection.

Attention is called to the fact that these subjects of the second class touch a deeper part of the child's being and give a finer and broader culture than the use of objects and material phenomena. While the study of objects is essential in primary education, to limit our instruction to the use of objects would materialize the work of the primary school. We need idealism as well as realism in education; there is a place for the humanities even in the work of the primary school. Nature study should thus

be supplemented by the study of human nature; the facts of the physical world are to be accompanied by the facts and products that belong to the world of thought and feeling. This principle, which has sometimes been lost sight of by those who would be guides in educational thought and practice, should never be forgotten by the teacher of children.

An additional element of value in these lessons is found in the fact that a child can originate something for itself. In the study of plants and animals the child can observe and describe what is before it. The value of this study is in its accuracy of observation and description. In the sphere of mental products it can begin to create new things for itself. It can express its own feelings, its own thoughts, its own opinion of things. It can relate incidents in family life, narrate the actions of its playmates or schoolmates, originate imaginary incidents, etc., all of which give culture to the creative powers of a child's mind. Thus in every aspect of the case the humanistic element of education is seen to be of higher value than the materialistic element, and it should therefore be given that prominence in a course of instruction which its intrinsic merits demand.

EXAMINATIONS FOR PROMOTIONS.

It has been the custom in Philadelphia for several years to make formal promotions of pupils in the months of January and June. These promotions were made on the basis of an examination upon questions prepared by the Department of Superintendence. These two examinations, in my opinion, were not only a waste of time and energy but an interference for several weeks with the work of the schools. It seemed to me, therefore, desirable to omit at least one of these examinations and permit the promotions to be made on the judgment of the principal

of the school and the teacher of the class. I therefore, in a report to the Board at the regular meeting in November, 1892, recommended that the Superintendent be authorized to adopt the following regulations in respect to the January promotions for 1893:—

1. Only pupils of fourth and eighth grades in schools promoting to other schools shall be examined, upon questions prepared by the Superintendent.

2. All pupils of fourth and eighth grades not promoting to other schools and the pupils of all other grades in every school shall be promoted upon the judgment of the principal or supervising principal in connection with that of the class teacher. *Provided*, that in special cases in which there may be reasonable doubt regarding the qualifications of a pupil for promotion, such qualifications may be tested by an examination of the pupil upon suitable questions prepared by the principal of the school, who shall forward to the Superintendent the questions submitted and the results obtained.

3. Principals of schools in which pupils of fourth and eighth grades are examined for promotion to other schools will report the results of such examinations on blanks as heretofore. All promotions made upon the judgment of the principal and the class teacher shall be reported to the Superintendent on blanks to be furnished for the purpose.

4. All pupils in so-called "B classes" of Grammar grades shall be advanced to "A classes" of the same grade, continuing, whenever possible, under the charge of the same teacher.

5. It is suggested that principals and supervising principals take special pains to make themselves familiar with the work of their lower grades to aid them in forming their judgment of the qualifications of pupils for promotion.

6. Whenever the promotion made under this system shall not be satisfactory to the Superintendent, he shall make such investigation in each case as will enable him to effect whatever change his judgment may suggest as necessary in the interests of the pupils and the schools concerned.

This departure from the previous practice of the department was in accord with the spirit of the most progressive educational sentiment of the country, and the recommendation was unanimously approved by the Board of Public Education. The results of the experiment were so satisfactory that upon the recommendation of the Superintendent at its meeting in December, 1893, the Board authorized the adoption of the same plan for January, 1894.

The reasons for this change are many and cogent and cannot be too often repeated or too strongly urged. It is believed that the judgment of the teacher and the principal is far more reliable in determining a pupil's fitness to be advanced to a higher grade than the results of a few hours spent by the pupils upon a set of questions prepared by the Superintendent and his assistants. Besides, promotion without examination is an actual advantage to both teachers and pupils. Teachers will work with greater freedom and achieve far better results when they can follow their own judgment in respect to the development of their pupils than when they feel obliged to shape their instruction to meet the requirements of an examination which, in the nature of things, must be more or less narrow and technical. In addition to this, the responsibility placed upon teachers in determining the fitness of their pupils for promotion will be an incentive for them to do their most skillful and conscientious work. They will naturally watch more carefully the daily growth and development of their pupils, and thus be better able to adapt their instruction to their special needs and abilities. The incentive with the pupils will be far stronger without than with an examination, since their promotion will depend upon their daily attention and progress, rather than upon the result of a far-off examination day.

In my recommendation it was thought that in cases of promotion from one school to another where the pupils passed under the supervision of another principal, there would be less liability to mistakes and dissatisfaction if the standard of promotions was determined by the Department of Superintendence rather than by the school promoting. I was strongly inclined to recommend the Board to try the experiment this year of leaving the promotions in such cases to the judgment of the school which made the promotions; but a careful consideration of

the subject led me to advise the readoption of the method of last year.

This modification of the former method of promotions was regarded by the Superintendent as a stepping-stone to even fewer examinations for advancing pupils to higher grades. The ideal system of promotions in the elementary schools, towards which all the larger cities are working, is to make all promotions without examinations. But while this is the ideal towards which it may be desirable to aim, there are circumstances that lead me to believe that it would not be judicious to attempt to realize this ideal immediately in Philadelphia. It is, therefore, the judgment of the Superintendent and his assistants that we are not quite ready to dispense with both January and June examinations for promotions in the elementary schools. A large number of our schools are not under supervision, and the work of the assistant teachers could not be so thoroughly observed and the standing of pupils so accurately ascertained by the principal as would be necessary to promote without an examination. The sentiments of principals and teachers are also to be given proper consideration, and they are not all ready for the general adoption of the system. Changes so important as these should, in a large city like Philadelphia, be made gradually in order to secure the best results. Many of our schools are in a condition that it would be entirely safe to trust the matter to the teachers and principals; there are other schools, however, in which, for special reasons, the experiment of dispensing with all examinations for promotions might not prove satisfactory. A further consideration in favor of one examination a year that has had weight with us in determining the matter, is that a set of questions, prepared at this office, at least once a year, indicates a standard of attainment in the various grades and branches of the course of study and

tends to keep the schools up to a uniform plane of instruction and attainment.

Whether the one examination should be held in June or January has been a subject of consideration with my department. Our present thought is that it better not be fixed by legislation, but be left an open question, so that we may be able to vary the time in accordance with what may be regarded as best for the schools. After a very careful consideration of the entire subject the Superintendent would recommend that it is not advisable to have any legislation by the Board at present upon the subject; but to leave it in its present flexible condition, subject to the opinion of the Superintendent and the Board, so that there may be freedom in adopting the method that may seem best adapted to secure the interests of our schools.

In expressing the above opinions it is, of course, to be understood that it is the judgment of the Superintendent that there should be an annual examination of Twelfth Grade pupils for promotion to the higher schools. Some cities are gradually discontinuing such examinations, but whatever the future may bring to us, in this respect, I do not think it would be advisable at present to dispense with the June examinations for promotions to the higher schools.

RECORDS FOR PROMOTION.

Connected with the question of examination for promotions was naturally associated the question of school records as the basis of determining fitness for promotions. The custom in many schools had been to mark pupils for daily recitations, and it was thought that these marks should be the proper basis for promotions. My advice was that weekly judgment marks would be more reliable than the marks of daily recitations and that these judgment marks in connection with a final estimate of attainment by teacher and principal would constitute the best basis for

promotions. So general was the method of marking for daily recitations in both elementary and higher schools that I could not forbear to express my earnest protest against it. My words were, "I know of nothing that is so well adapted to destroy the effectiveness of instruction as for a teacher to stand with pen or pencil in hand ready to put down a mark opposite to a pupil's name the moment he has answered a question or finished a recitation. To train a pupil to recite for a recitation mark is to give him an absolutely wrong idea of education, and tends to destroy his taste for study and knowledge."

In my meetings with principals and supervising principals, I earnestly advised them on the following points: (1) That there should be no daily marking of pupils during the recitation. (2) That weekly judgment marks were far more reliable than marks of daily recitations. (3) That the use of figures in marking the studies of pupils is objectionable. (4) That the use of words like "excellent, good, fair, poor, bad," or simpler, "good, fair, poor, bad," is to be preferred to the use of figures. This advice awakened a deep interest in the subject and led to a general discussion of it by teachers, parents and directors. The result of this discussion was clearer and more intelligent views on the entire subject of marking and examinations. Many teachers who had used figures to mark the standing of their pupils dropped them for a system of words; and the marking of daily recitations has been generally discontinued. Further, a committee of members of the Board was appointed to investigate the general subject of marks in the higher schools of the city as well as the elementary schools. This investigation showed marked differences in the methods used in these schools, varying from the most rigid daily markings, often on the estimate or assertion of the pupil, to the opposite extreme of almost entirely omitting to keep regular records of the standing

of students. The opinion of the most progressive representatives of these schools was that a system of rigid marking is useless and pernicious. What the final result of this conference will be it is too early to judge, but that it will inaugurate improved methods of estimating the standing of pupils cannot be doubted. The Normal School, unfettered by precedent, has set a commendable example in adopting a liberal and sensible method of determining promotions as follows :—

1. Those students of the Junior Class, who shall obtain a general term average of 80 or over, shall be promoted without a written examination, provided they shall have obtained an average of 60 or over in each department.

2. When a student obtains a term average of 80, and has averages in some departments below 60, she shall have a written examination in each department in which she has failed to obtain the latter average, and no student shall be promoted unless she shall have obtained an average of 60 or more in each department upon examination.

3. When a student's general term average falls below 80, she shall have a written examination in each department in which she has failed to obtain a term average of 80, and she shall not be promoted unless she shall obtain a general average of 70 or upwards in the subjects thus examined upon, and with no average less than 60 in any department.

4. All written examinations are to be held in September following the close of the term.

The idea of this last rule is that no examinations shall be demanded when the students are tired out with the work of the term. The regulations adopted for determining the averages for graduation are as follows :—

1. Pupils of the Senior Class who shall obtain a general average of 85, or upwards, for scholarship during the term (second year of the course), and an average of 65, or upwards, in each department or branch of study, shall be permitted to graduate without attending any final examination.

2. Any pupil of the Senior Class who shall receive the said general average, but shall fail to obtain the required minimum average in any department or branch of study, shall be allowed to attend a final examination in any branch in which she shall have so failed; and if, at such examination or examinations, such pupil shall receive an average or averages of 65, or upwards, she shall be permitted to graduate.

3. Any pupil who shall fail to obtain the prescribed general average shall be allowed to attend a final examination in all the departments or branches of study in which her term average shall be less than 85; and if

she shall pass such examination with a minimum average of 65, or upwards, in each department or branch of study, and a general average of 70, or upwards, in all the departments or branches of study so examined upon, she shall be permitted to graduate.

4. The final graduating average, in such case, shall be obtained by computing the total of the term averages that are not less than 85, and the examination averages, and dividing their sum by the number of separate items that form the total.

5. The final graduating average of a pupil who shall receive the required general term average, but shall fall below the minimum in any department or branch of study, shall be computed in like manner.

The Superintendent would respectfully suggest that the authorities of the higher schools give the matter the thorough and intelligent consideration which it merits.

PATRIOTISM IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

“To make good American citizens,” says President Sheppard in his recent report, “is the great object of free education.” In pursuance of this object we need to develop in our schools not only intelligence and moral character, but also an appreciation of the duties and privileges of citizenship. Special efforts should be made to cultivate in the hearts of youth a love of home and country and a spirit of patriotism. For the accomplishment of this object an influential means is the commemoration of historic events which adorn our history or shaped our free institutions. Special attention was given during the past year to several such events in our public schools.

1. *Celebration of Flag Day.*

Among those events that stand out prominently in the history of the country and give honor and renown to our own city is the adoption of the flag of the United States in 1777. Associated with this event is the interesting story of “Betsy Ross and the Flag.” This story is more than an interesting tradition; it not only has the semblance of truth, but seems well authenticated, and it is one of

those beautiful historic incidents that should be treasured in the memory of our citizens. It is an event especially adapted to awaken a glow of patriotic feeling in the hearts of the boys and girls of our public schools.

In view of these facts I suggested last year that the adoption of the flag be commemorated with suitable exercises in our public schools. The exercises suggested embraced a brief account of the origin and adoption of the flag, some interesting facts in its history, together with a few patriotic songs and recitations. This suggestion met with a wide and cordial response among our teachers, and the story of Betsy Ross and the origin and adoption of the American flag was told to thousands of the children of the public schools. The pupils of several schools, located at a convenient distance from the place, marched in procession to the little house on Arch street where the flag was first made. The story of "Betsy Ross and the Flag," as gathered from the columns of several daily papers of the city which, at my request, printed an account of the incident, is substantially as follows :—

In 1777 Congress appointed a committee with General Washington at its head to design a flag suitable for the new-born nation called the United States of America. The committee prepared a design, and then looked around for some one to make the flag in accordance with their ideas. In a little house at 239 Arch street, still standing, lived a young woman named Betsy Ross, noted for her skill in needle-work. So widely was this skill recognized that it is said she made the handsome ruffled bosoms for the shirts of the General himself—bosoms that are preserved to this day as samples of her handiwork. General Washington, remembering her skill, called upon her, and showing her a rough draft of the flag—the draft is still in possession of the State Department—asked her whether she could make such a flag? "I can try," was her modest

yet confident answer. The design consisted of alternating red and white stripes and thirteen six-pointed stars on a background of blue. Betsy Ross suggested that five-pointed stars would be more appropriate, and finally prevailed upon the Father of his Country to adopt her suggestion by showing him how to make a five-pointed star with a single snip of her scissors. A further change in the arrangement of the stars was made from the original circle to the old idea of a cross.

The flag made by Betsy Ross and submitted by the committee was adopted by Congress on June 14th of that year. The evidence seems entirely authentic that she made the sample flag, and with such acceptability that she was commissioned to make a number more. Her uncle, Col. Ross, is said to have provided her with the means to procure the necessary material; and there is a record of an order on the Treasury in May, 1777, "to pay Betsy Ross 14£ 12s. 2d. for flags for the fleet in the Delaware river."

The grave of Betsy Ross is in Mount Moriah Cemetery. A simple head-stone marks her resting place, upon which is the following inscription:—

"In memory of John Claypole, who died August 3, 1817, aged 65 years. Also Elizabeth Claypole, died January 30, 1836, aged 84 years. Also James Campion, died February 14, 1836, aged 26 years."

The Elizabeth Claypole is the widow of John Claypole, and is the Betsy Ross who made the first flag a few years before her marriage to him.

This, so far as I know, was the first time that "Flag Day" had been commemorated by the pupils of our public schools; but it seems to me that it should become a fixed custom of our city. Philadelphia is rich in historic memories, and we shall do well to avail ourselves of the opportunity to use these to cultivate a love for our city and country and to awaken in the minds of youth high ideals

of civic responsibilities and duties. With the sanction of the Board, I repeated the suggestion to the principals and teachers of our schools again this year that they devote a portion of the 14th of June to the commemoration of the adoption of the flag with the incident of its origin. There is no reason why "Flag Day" shall not become as sacred an event in the memory of our citizens as "Paul Revere's Ride" or the "Boston Tea Party" to the pupils of the city of Boston.

2. *Landing of the "Good Ship Welcome."*

It has been customary in every nation and in all ages of the world to commemorate the founding of the commonwealth or some incident connected with its origin. Such exercises deepen the sense of patriotism and serve to strengthen the attachment to one's native land. The founding of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania by William Penn stands out as one of the most notable events in American history. His unique and lofty personal character and his abilities as a statesman place him among the greatest men of his age, and command the admiration of mankind. Indeed it is not too much to say that in his views of government and education William Penn was undoubtedly the wisest and broadest-minded man among the early settlers of this country; and he thus presents a fitting subject for a lesson of patriotism to the pupils of our public schools.

Moved by these considerations and the desire to enhance the love for and appreciation of our city and State, I presented the following report to the Board at its meeting last September:—

"One of the chief objects of the public schools is to fit their pupils for the duties of citizenship. For the accomplishment of this purpose, one of the most efficient means is the cultivation of the sentiment of patriotism; and for the development of this sentiment, one of the most influential agencies is the commemoration of the great historic events of the State or Nation.

"On the 27th of October, 1682, the 'good ship Welcome' sailed up the harbor and landed on the shores of the Delaware. On the deck of this vessel stood a man who bore to a new world a new gospel of civil liberty. He came as a herald of the doctrine of peace, justice, and charity—a doctrine which it has taken the world centuries to learn, and which is just beginning to be the policy of the older nations.

"New England, with patriotic purpose, commemorates the landing of the Mayflower, and the relation of that event to national liberty. Pennsylvania, and especially Philadelphia, should, it would seem, with the same patriotic purpose commemorate the landing of the 'Welcome,' freighted with a purer and nobler doctrine of humanity and civil liberty, unstained with any spirit of intolerance and bigotry. I would therefore recommend that the Superintendent be authorized to direct the teachers of the public schools to hold such exercises on the anniversary of the landing of the 'good ship Welcome' as may fittingly commemorate that event, and teach a lesson of patriotism to the children of the city."

In pursuance of this recommendation, the Board of Public Education, through the proper committee, authorized the Superintendent to arrange for the celebration of the event in the public schools with fitting ceremonies. The principals and teachers of the public schools were therefore requested to arrange a short program of exercises for Friday, October 27th, suitable for the commemoration of the landing of the "good ship Welcome." The date, October 27th, it will be remembered, is that of the old calendar, and it was thought best, in accordance with reliable precedents, not to change the date to correspond with the new calendar. The character of the exercises was left to the judgment of the principals and teachers of the several schools, though it was suggested that the program might include one or more of the following topics:—

1. Brief sketch of the life of Penn.
2. Voyage and landing of the Welcome.
3. Penn's views of government.
4. Penn's views of education.
5. Penn's treatment of the Indians.
6. Penn's "Treaty Tree."
7. The Penn House.
8. Singing of patriotic songs.

These exercises were to be a part of the regular school-day's work of the elementary schools, and were to be varied in the different grades to suit the capacity of the children. It was also suggested that if the higher schools thought best to join in the celebration, they would find much of interest and profit to their students in the character and views of government and education of this great founder of a free commonwealth. It is especially interesting to remember that he made provisions for a broad and thorough system of public education, and was an earnest advocate of manual training and industrial education. These exercises created a high degree of interest among both teachers and pupils, and received the cordial sanction of the public press and the general public. I shall repeat the suggestion the coming autumn, hoping that the landing of Penn may become as generally celebrated in our city as the landing of the Pilgrims is in Boston; and that the story of the "good ship Welcome" will become as familiar to our citizens and awaken as many patriotic memories as that of the "Mayflower." The memories and traditions of a city or State are a safeguard of its liberties.

3. Celebration of the Fourth of July.

Last summer City Councils, with patriotic purpose, made arrangements for a celebration of our great national holiday in a manner appropriate to the Columbian anniversary. Arrangements were made, at their suggestion, to have the children of the public schools participate in this celebration, and a program of exercises suitable to the occasion was prepared. This program provided for a forenoon celebration in nine conveniently located centres, and an afternoon celebration in Fairmount Park.

The locations and squares selected by Councils for the forenoon celebration were the following: Independence Square; Passyunk Square, Twelfth and Wharton streets;

Logan Square, Seventeenth and Race streets; Norris Square, Hancock and Diamond streets; Fortieth street and Girard avenue; Vernon Square, Germantown; Frankford avenue and Harrison street; Jefferson Square, Fourth street and Washington avenue; and Manayunk.

The program for the forenoon exercises at each of these places was as follows:—

10 A. M.—Prayer; reading of the Declaration of Independence; singing of patriotic songs by the children of the public schools; music by the band; and patriotic addresses.

At 4 o'clock in the afternoon there were similar exercises on a larger scale in the East Park. These exercises were held at the parade ground, which lies immediately north of the Reservoir, and south of Strawberry Mansion. The *boys only* of the public schools were to furnish the choral music at this place.

In the afternoon there was a civic parade forming at and starting from Broad and Spring Garden streets, at 2 o'clock, and proceeding thence to the East Park. At the request of Councils arrangements were made to have the boys taking part in the choruses who wished to participate in the exercises in the Park in the afternoon, to join this parade at Broad and Diamond streets at 3 o'clock. Wherever the boys of any Section decided to participate, arrangements were made for one of the male principals to marshal the boys and take charge of them in the parade. Badges and flags were supplied to all the children (boys and girls) participating in any exercises of the day.

This celebration on the part of the children of the public schools was a suggestive and impressive event. The boys as they marched through the city, and the girls as they gathered on the sidewalks in places selected for them, attracted universal attention. It seemed to be recognized that these young people would soon take their

places in the life of the city as American citizens, and that an occasion like this was adapted to increase their patriotism, and to teach lessons of devotion to the interests and welfare of their city and their country.

THE NEW COURSE IN DRAWING.

Last year special attention was given to the introduction of the new Course in Arithmetic. The present year has been largely devoted to the preparation and introduction of the new Course in Drawing. The Course in Drawing which I found in use in the public schools, while containing many excellent features, did not seem to me adapted to secure the best results in this department of study. It was not sufficiently definite in its directions, was not carefully graded so as to give proper sequence to the work, gave too much prominence to the so-called geometrical views, and not enough to the decorative and pictorial elements in drawing, and was largely neglectful of the industrial side of the work. While some of the teachers of the city were doing creditable work in several directions, they were doing it not by virtue of the merits of the course, but in spite of its defects. The course was the result of much intelligent thought on the part of those who prepared it, and its introduction had done much to improve the drawing in the public schools; yet as new ideas of instruction had been developed, it naturally fell behind the times, and did not express the latest ideas on the subject.

The reconstruction of the course was begun soon after entering upon the duties of my office. As the work proceeded, I realized the need of an expert in the art, not merely to aid me in the task of revision, but especially to give instruction to our teachers and to supervise the work in the schools. I, therefore, recommended the addition of a Director of Drawing to my corps of assistants, which the

Board very readily granted. As soon as the Director entered upon his duties, we took up the work of revision, and devoted several months of careful study to it. So far as the general principles of art study was concerned the problem was not a difficult one. It would have been a comparatively easy task to prepare an ideal course in drawing for ideal teachers and schools; but such was not the problem before us. The question was what particular order of graded work is best adapted to the public schools of Philadelphia. In attempting to meet this question we examined carefully the courses pursued in other cities, consulted the views of experts in teaching the art, advised with several of the leading principals of the city, and availed ourselves of such suggestions as we thought to be of value, from whatever source they could be obtained. We even, in a few doubtful points, went into the schools and made experiments with the pupils. Frequent meetings were also held with my other assistants who had been teachers in the public schools, and were familiar with their needs from actual experience in teaching as well as in supervision. Thus the course grew into its final shape, and was ready for introduction last October. A meeting of principals was then called for a general explanation of the subject, after which arrangements were made for the Director of Drawing to meet the teachers of the various grades and give them instruction in the details of the system. So great was the demand among the teachers for this instruction that the Teachers' Institute organized several classes with special instructors, and I also made arrangements with one of the teachers of the Normal School to give special lessons in paper cutting and folding to the teachers of several parts of the city. The number of such meetings was over one hundred. This desire on the part of our teachers to qualify themselves for the work was very gratifying and deserving of high praise.

While the entire course is the result of much thought and labor, it is still regarded somewhat as tentative and experimental rather than as a final judgment in the matter. For this reason it has not been presented to the Board for adoption, but is introduced into the schools under the resolution of the Board authorizing the Superintendent, in connection with the Committee on Revision of Studies, "to introduce such changes in the Course of Instruction in Drawing as in his and their judgment may be thought best for the interests of the schools." This permits us not only to observe the operation of the course, but leaves us at liberty to make such variations of it to suit the wants of the different schools and the qualifications of teachers as our judgment may sanction. As soon as we are satisfied that we have reached a course entirely adapted to our schools, and one which we are sure our teachers are qualified to carry out, we shall present it to the Board for final ratification.

The course, as I have stated, was cordially received by our teachers, who manifested a highly commendable spirit in seeking to qualify themselves to teach it. The only opposition it met with came from those who thought that in modeling diseases might be communicated by the handling of clay by different pupils. This matter was referred by the Board to a committee of medical experts who, after a very careful and thorough consideration of the subject, reported that such danger was imaginary rather than real. The introduction of the course in the schools of some sections was delayed on account of a lack of material for paper-work and tablet-laying, which it is hoped will be remedied the coming year.

Objects of Drawing.—In the preparation of the course we kept clearly before our minds that the primary object to be attained is that of mental discipline or the development of the powers of the child. In this respect the

subject of Drawing is believed to possess a large educational value. It cultivates the power of perception,—a faculty valuable in all the common affairs of life,—and calls into activity the power of comparison and thus gives culture to the judgment in respect to the form, size, and proportion of objects. It also gives culture to the imagination and the æsthetic sense which results both in the enjoyment of the element of beauty in nature and art and in the production of works of taste and beauty.

The practical value of the skill derived from the study of Drawing is also a consideration of great importance. First, Drawing lies at the basis of the mechanic arts. All constructions in wood, iron, or stone must first be represented by what are called working drawings before they can be shaped by the hand of the mechanic. By means of Drawing, the designs of the inventor or the conceptions of the architect are expressed so that the artisan can construct what the brain of the inventor has conceived. By the versatile taste and delicate touch of skilled designers, our fictile, textile, and all other fabrics are made objects of utility and beauty, ministering to our highest practical and æsthetic needs. By means of the plastic clay of the sculptor or the facile brush of the painter, visions of beauty may be realized that touch the sympathies of the world and command the admiration of mankind.

While the object in teaching Drawing in the public schools is the acquisition of manual and artistic skill, as well as mental discipline—which is paramount—it is not the object, however, to train the pupils of our public schools for any special handicraft. The purpose is to give a general culture of the faculties co-ordinate with manual dexterity, that pupils may readily place themselves in sympathy with the beautiful in nature and art work for which their natural taste or inclination may adapt them.

Outline of Course.—While this is not the place to enter into a detailed discussion of the nature of the course, a brief statement of its general principles will not be inappropriate. The course includes as a part of Form Study—which is the basis of Drawing—modeling, paper-folding and cutting, tablet and stick laying. The order of instruction is as follows: (1) Lessons on type forms; (2) Modeling; (3) Tablet and Stick Laying and Paper Folding and Cutting; (4) Lessons in Color; (5) Drawing. In the Department of Form Study we changed the usual order of sequence of the type forms, beginning with the Sphere instead of the Cube, and following the Sphere with the Cylinder and then the Cube. This leads of course to the study of curved lines before the study of the straight line which is also a novelty, but one which it is thought is based on psychological principles. The foundation of the entire work is “object study,” and pupils are required to work directly from the object both in modeling and in drawing. The pupil is thus taught not only to see with accuracy and precision but to represent what he sees. At the same time another point was kept in view, that while much of the work is necessarily imitative, there should be exercises to call forth the inventive powers of the child. This is especially furnished in tablet-laying and in drawing of lines and figures in original designs. Thus both the imitative and the creative elements of a child’s nature are brought into activity and developed in harmony. The fundamental principles therefore upon which the course is based are *Observation*, *Expression*, and *Invention*.

Drawing, as indicated by its nature and its historical development, may be considered under two general divisions, viz.: Surface Drawing and Solid Drawing. The former represents only the lines and surfaces of objects, the first and second geometrical elements. The latter comprehends in one view the three elements of extension

—length, breadth and thickness—and thus represents solid bodies on a plane surface. In this first division of the subject no knowledge is required that is not common to all minds; all children with little instruction are able to represent the surface outlines or contour of the things they see around them.

Surface Drawing.—It is thus apparent that the first step in the art of Drawing is that of surface drawing, or the delineation of the surfaces of bodies. These surfaces are bounded by lines, hence the line becomes the earliest element of pictorial expression. This was the first element of graphic expression used by the primitive peoples, as will be seen by the study of art among the early Assyrians, Egyptians, and Grecians. The same fact is also illustrated by the rude inscriptions on the rocks by the aborigines of America, and also by the drawings, until a recent date, of the Chinese and Japanese. Ignorance or an oversight of these distinctions among teachers and pupils had been the source of considerable confusion and uncertainty wherever the subject of drawing had been taught. Experts themselves are not agreed at what stage of the course the representation of the third dimension should be introduced, some advocating its introduction in the first year of the course, and others deferring it to the fifth year. A careful consideration of the subject, together with experiments in the schools, led us to decide to begin it in the third year of the course, the first two years being devoted to drawing in two dimensions only.

It is thus apparent that in accordance with the principles of pedagogy the child should begin with lessons on surface drawing. The simplest elements of linear drawing and the geometrical forms of one and two divisions, are lines—curved, straight and mixed; and the surfaces—circle, square, rectangle, etc. This drawing is naturally called Geometric Drawing. These geometrical elements

can be united into various forms of beauty for decorative purposes, as in the decoration of flat surfaces, vase forms, etc. This needs no new language of expression, in its elementary stage, but merely the application of skill in Geometric Drawing, applied with taste and a sense of artistic beauty. It assumes and cultivates a taste for combinations of symmetry and proportion, and requires skill in the use of the pencil as the instrument of expressing the conceptions of the mind. This kind of drawing is naturally distinguished as Decorative Drawing.

Solid Drawing.—The next step is the representation of the trinal extension of objects presenting pictures of them as they appear to us in nature. This involves the laws of perspective and the use of light and shade to represent solidity of form and relative distance. Lines are so drawn and light and shade so combined as to portray, on a flat surface, the objects that really occupy space and to represent them in their relations to one another. The result is a picture of things corresponding to the idea of them in space as they are revealed to the sense of vision. Such Drawing, it is evident, is naturally distinguished as Pictorial Drawing; it has also been called Representative or Perspective Drawing.

From this analysis a Course in Drawing for the public schools will naturally be embraced under the following divisions:—

- I. Geometric Drawing. II. Decorative Drawing.
- III. Pictorial Drawing.

These divisions of the art of drawing as growing out of fundamental distinctions and considerations, are logically and practically differentiated. The order in which they should be presented to the learner will be evident from the analysis given. The child should first be taught to represent the surfaces of objects by means of lines,

which is geometric drawing. The correctness of this order is indicated by the history of the art of drawing as well as by the nature of the subject. Mr. Hamerton says, "The historic development of drawing may always be seen in the practice of children when left to draw for their own amusement. They begin as the human race began, with firm outlines representing men and animals usually in profile." In a well-graded course of study, the first lessons should consist in the drawing of the simple forms of geometrical surfaces as previously explained.

Geometric Drawing should evidently be followed by the application of the elements to ornamentation and design. This is also inferred from the historical development of the subject. The art of decoration was in use long before the art of painting was known to the ancients. It required centuries to develop a practical knowledge of the laws of perspective in order to picture the objects of the external world on a flat surface. In time, however, this knowledge was attained, and by means of the pencil and brush were created some of the rarest productions of human genius. The order of instruction should therefore be first, Geometric Drawing; second, Decorative Drawing; and third, Pictorial Drawing.

I. Geometric Drawing.—Geometric Drawing is the representation of lines on a flat surface of the faces of a geometric solid or similar object. The bodies not having plane faces, as spherical bodies, are represented by the contour of those bodies or, more strictly speaking, by the surface formed by a section of those bodies cut by a plane. The figures with which Geometric Drawing deals are the circle, square, ellipse, rectangle, parallelogram, trapezoid, etc. These figures, obtained from the observation of the faces of geometrical solids, may be used abstractly for practice in acquiring skill in the use of the pencil and also in the forming of designs for decorative purposes.

One of the most practical applications of Geometric Drawing is that of a working drawing or diagram used for the construction of an object. A working drawing, more technically called a "a projection drawing," is a diagram based on geometrical forms showing as many views and dimensions as will be necessary to afford the mechanic a full description for the making of the object. These views are representations of the different surfaces of the object, and as many of them as are necessary for a full graphic description of the object to the mechanic who constructs it.

II. Decorative Drawing.—Decorative Drawing consists in the application of the forms of Geometric Drawing to the purposes of ornamentation and designing. It includes the study of the principles of ornamentation and their application to objects and designs for the purpose of rendering them more beautiful. Its artistic end is beauty, and its practical object is the gratification of the æsthetic sense of mankind. In the accomplishment of its end it combines the beautiful in color with beauty of form wherever such combination adds to the purpose of ornamentation.

Decorative Drawing begins with elementary designs based on geometric units. These are to be combined into forms of grace and symmetry in accordance with established principles of art guided by the taste and inventive skill of the pupil. It then passes to the use of conventionalized natural forms of flowers, foliage, etc., which are also combined in accordance with the laws of art and the taste of the artist. The principles of design governing these combinations include arrangement, repetition, symmetry on an axis, units of design, conventionalization of natural forms, etc. For the attainment of skill in Decorative Drawing these principles must be thoroughly understood. Besides this it requires the observation and drawing

of natural flowers and foliage, and the study of vase and other artistic forms with the decorations upon them. A particular form of Decorative Drawing is called Historic, because it was used for artistic ornamentation by the nations of the past.

Decorative drawing, being the application of the beautiful to the adornment of objects, is especially applicable to the industries and the products of art. Skill in this department of drawing is applied in making patterns for wall paper, oil-cloth, carpets, etc. It includes also the decoration of plates, cups and saucers, vases, and similar objects used in our households. The beauty of the textile and other fabrics is largely dependent upon artistic skill in decorative drawing.

III. Pictorial Drawing.—Pictorial drawing is the art of delineating objects as they appear to the eye under the varying conditions of position and distance. It involves the laws of perspective and the combination of light and shade to express trinal extension and relative distance. It requires not only an artistic sense in observing objects, but also a knowledge of the use of lines and of light and shade to represent them on a plane surface.

This leads to a study of the laws of perspective, and a practical application of these laws in representing the objects of the world around us. It also involves the representation of the ideal conceptions of the mind in the domain of form. In its higher forms it employs color, and thus results in the art of painting, one of the most attractive of the fine arts.

Skill in pictorial drawing is essentially artistic. It is applied in landscape sketching, in portrait painting, in the illustrations of magazines and other periodicals, in the art of etching and engraving, and in the grand art of painting. The rich products of art that adorn the galleries of the world are the trophies of the art of pictorial drawing.

There can be no great school of painting in this country until the art sense of the nation has been cultivated by the teaching of pictorial drawing in our public schools.

Conclusion.—This triad of subjects into which the Course in Drawing is divided indicates the methods of instruction in the art. Geometry, it is seen, is made the basis of form study from which drawing as a fine art is to be developed. All high skill in the art of drawing is attained only by the careful study and execution of the geometrical elements. These elements are first applied to the making of projections of working drawings, which, as has been seen, are essential to the grand achievements of the industrial arts.

From these we pass to the subject of Decorative Drawing, which consists in the use of the type forms of geometry and nature combined in accordance with the laws of taste and the sense of the beautiful. In the drawing of projections, the work is done under the direction of science and utility; in decorative drawing, the combinations are formed under the control of the principles of beauty. The spirit of the beautiful and the power of the creative imagination give shape to the conceptions and guide the pencil in the artistic forms of the decorative art.

Then follows Pictorial Drawing, in which the elements of light and shade play a part in expression. The forms of nature are represented not merely in their facts, but as they reveal themselves to the sense of vision. Beginning with the mere imitation of nature, the art of representation rises to the expression of the ideal conceptions of the creative imagination. Here we reach the highest form of graphic expression—the sphere where genius has opportunity for its rarest and loftiest productions.

In all these higher forms of the art, the element of beauty becomes predominant and regnant. A cultivated taste is required for their production, and they appeal

to the æsthetic sense of the beholder. Here art becomes a source of refining pleasure to mankind and a means of culture and moral elevation. The emotional nature is touched, the heart is refined and purified, and the character is elevated and ennobled.

Teachers should remember that beauty is a native element of the heart of a child, and that it should be early cultivated. To strengthen and develop this element, pupils should be led to a sympathetic study of the works of nature and of art. The school-room should be adorned with pictures and flowers, whose silent influence, stealing imperceptibly into the mind of the child, will lift it up to a higher appreciation of that which is pure and refining. No opportunity should be lost to call attention to every manifestation of good art in pictures, architecture, vases, house-furnishing—in the simplest as well as the most elaborate objects of adornment. Teachers should also endeavor to stamp upon the plastic nature of the child memory pictures of the beauty of sea and sky, of meadow and forest, of fleecy cloud and twinkling star and solemn mountain—pictures which will call into being and give shape and color to the ideal conceptions of the imagination, such as have delighted the world and crowned the artist with the laurel leaf of fame.

PENMANSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

President Sheppard, in his late report says, "Whilst in many schools there has been a marked improvement in most of the studies pursued, I regret to have to say that in penmanship they are deficient." This statement has led me to make some inquiries into the matter with a view of ascertaining to what extent our pupils are deficient in this branch and also the cause of such deficiency. There is not time to reach any definite conclusion during the present school year, but the matter will receive my

earnest attention upon the opening of the schools next September. One peculiar fact which has impressed itself on my mind is that we often notice comparatively better penmanship in the Primary Grades than in the Grammar Grades. This fact is apparently due to several causes which demand the attention of teachers as well as of the Department of Superintendence. It is a question whether the method of holding the pencil or pen in the lower grades and the careful drawing of the letters are conducive to good penmanship in the higher grades. It is also a question whether there is not too much note-taking required in the higher grades, the result of which is a habit of scribbling and of carelessness in respect to penmanship.

In connection with the above it may be said that the question of a change in our methods of penmanship is being agitated just now among American educators. There seems to be a growing sentiment in favor of discarding the slanting style of writing which has been so long in use in our schools and of adopting the vertical writing in its place. This method has been quite extensively introduced into the English schools, and the exhibit of the school work of the London School Board attracted great attention on this account. The round, full, vertical penmanship gave the papers the appearance of remarkable legibility. The system is now being introduced into many of our American schools, and is well worth our attention and careful consideration. Before the opening of the next school year, several of the leading publishing houses of this country will have copy-books and manuals setting forth this style of writing, ready to put into the field for adoption and use in the public schools. It is claimed that there are scientific reasons which strongly recommend the vertical system. The International Congress of Hygiene a few years ago reported

that eighty-nine per cent. of the myopia and spinal curvature occurs between the ages of five and fourteen years, and that they increase thirty-nine per cent. during school life. These diseases, it was stated, were especially prevalent among the Germans, a fact attributed to their method of writing and the poor light of their class-rooms. As early as 1877 a committee of experts was appointed by the German Government to inquire into the matter and report upon it. The committee were divided in the report, part of them favoring slanting writing and part giving their preference for vertical writing. Since then the question has been widely agitated, and just now the sentiment seems to be growing in favor of the vertical system of penmanship. While I am not ready to express a final judgment upon this matter, I am watching the movement with great interest and shall try to give it my special attention during the coming year.

A PEDAGOGICAL MUSEUM.

During my visit last summer at the World's Fair I was naturally impressed with the great benefits accruing to teachers in having the opportunity of seeing and studying representative school work. In reflecting upon the matter I formed the purpose of establishing on a small scale a Pedagogical Museum for the use of the teachers of Philadelphia. My plan was to take some of the best of our own work as a nucleus and combine with it some of the best representative work from several other leading cities of the country, and place the whole in one of our unoccupied or partially occupied school-buildings for the observation and study of our teachers. This purpose was presented to a special committee of the Board having charge of the educational exhibit, and was cordially approved by them; and I instructed my assistants, who were at Chicago in charge of our school work, to solicit

contributions from such exhibits as, in their judgment, might be of use to us. Soon after making this arrangement I learned that Dr. Wm. P. Wilson, who was representing the Park Commission at Chicago, in securing material for an Economic Museum, had conceived the idea of a large and complete educational museum, and had entered into negotiations with the authorities having charge of the educational exhibits of various foreign countries with the view of securing them for Philadelphia. Realizing the immense value to Philadelphia of such a collection of educational material I immediately directed my representatives at Chicago to turn over all the material, of which they had obtained the promise, to Dr. Wilson, and also sent two other representatives to Chicago to aid in the selection of such other material as might be desirable.

The results of the labors of Dr. Wilson are exceedingly gratifying. With an energy, enthusiasm and intelligence which command highest admiration he has succeeded in securing educational material of surpassing interest and value. He obtained through Mr. Yoshishiko Yambe, the Japanese Commissioner of Education, the entire educational exhibit of Japan, which, for completeness and interest, is unequalled by anything in this country, and which cost the Japanese Government some \$15,000. He also secured the entire German exhibit which represents the school work of a nation that, by general acknowledgment, leads the world in educational thought and practice. Besides these he has also obtained in whole or in part the educational exhibits of Brazil, Russia, Egypt, Costa Rica and Canada.

The Argentine Republic, not being satisfied with her educational exhibit at the Fair, gave us about two hundred photographs of plans of school-buildings from the Republic, offering, under proper directions, to present to

the city of Philadelphia a complete exhibit which would represent the educational interests of the State up to date. Mexico, through pleasant relations established with her Commissioners, three of whom were professors in leading schools and colleges of the City of Mexico, has offered to give us an exhibit showing the progress of education up to date in that country. New South Wales returned her Educational Exhibit, but has also promised, providing we will outline exactly what is desirable, to give us a complete exhibit representing her system of instruction up to date. Guatemala wishes to add to what is already given and make it a representative exhibit for her country. We have a small collection from France, which will without doubt be largely increased at an early date. The entire Exhibit of Sweden was given to the City of Philadelphia, only to be later withdrawn by the Official Educator in Stockholm, the Commissioner giving assurance that he would take an interest, at a later date, in securing a representative exhibit from Sweden. All the countries which presented us with exhibits, in view of the plan of organizing a National Educational Museum, freely offered to supplement from their governments anything which might be lacking, or would help us on toward this end. Through the courtesy of President Roberts, of the Pennsylvania Railroad, the Educational Exhibits were spared fully \$600 in freight charges. For the complete material which was brought from Chicago he gave fifteen free cars.

Having obtained this material, the question now confronting us is what disposition should be made of it. For the present, there being no building in which to place it, arrangements have been made to distribute a portion of it temporarily among a number of educational institutions. The Japanese Exhibit is set up in the School of Design for Women. More than one-third of this material was packed away and never exhibited in Chicago. It fills a

space at Broad and Master streets, of between four thousand and five thousand square feet. We have also been compelled to pack away in storage fully one thousand costumes and many other valuable statistical maps and charts, having no room to exhibit them. The Japanese Exhibit, pure and simple, without cases, occupied one and three-quarter cars; but with sufficient show and book cases to set it up, required at least three cars. The German Educational Exhibit has been placed in one of the rooms of the Girls' Normal School. This exhibit is regarded as the most scientific of any collection of educational materials exhibited at the Chicago Fair. It contains some of the finest charts and models for teaching and illustrating various kinds of work which have yet been produced in any country in the world. Other portions of the exhibit will be placed in other institutions or be kept boxed until a building is secured in which it can all be brought together. The idea is to make this material the basis of a grand Pedagogical Museum similar to the Musée Pédagogique in Paris, of which M. Jules Stegg is the distinguished head. In order to do this we must have a large building suitable for such an exhibit, and place at its head an educational expert to organize and take care of the exhibit. It has been suggested that some school-building in some part of the city, where the school population is rapidly diminishing, might be secured and fitted up for the purpose. This would require but a small outlay, and a comparatively small annual appropriation would be sufficient to pay the expense of an expert and assistants to take care of the exhibit and also defray the expenses of making necessary additions to the collection.

Such a museum would be of vast value to the cause of education in Philadelphia. It would be a source of inspiration and information not only to the teachers of the city but to the entire community. In it could be seen the

latest methods and devices for instruction, the most recent improvements in apparatus for illustrating school work, the most improved methods of heating, ventilating and lighting buildings, the various makes of school furniture, etc. In fact, it would be a centre of information on nearly every phase of educational work. Such an institution should appeal with great force to the pride of the citizens of Philadelphia. There is no such museum in this country, and there are only two others that would compare with it in the world. Philadelphia, in the establishment of such an institution, would place herself conspicuously before the entire community and become a centre of educational interest and information. Councils have already shown their interest in the movement by the appropriation of \$10,000 to the Board of Public Education to defray expenses of packing, transportation, etc. ; and it is to be hoped that they may see their way clear to make a still more liberal appropriation for securing and fitting up of a suitable building and the payment of the salary of an expert to take charge of and manage the museum. By so doing they will confer a blessing upon Philadelphia for which the friends of public education cannot be too grateful.

THE BOYS' CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL.

It gives me great pleasure to refer to the splendid prospects of the Boys' Central High School. The happy choice of the new President and the certainty of a new building awaken bright anticipations in respect to the future of this institution. Its work in the past has been eminently useful and creditable, and with new and enlarged facilities it is certain to enter upon even a more brilliant career of usefulness. Among the several questions which will no doubt present themselves to the Board for the improvement of the institution, are the following: 1. The establishment of a year's preparatory or sub-freshman

course. 2. Some modifications of the present courses of study. 3. The establishment of a commercial course. 4. The adding of one year to the course of the School of Pedagogy, making it a two years' course. 5. The change of name from Central High School to People's College or the College of Philadelphia, or some such name to indicate its collegiate standing and authority. 6. The introduction of military drills, now under consideration by the Committee.

These changes, it seems to me, are very important, and would add greatly to the efficiency and reputation of the Institution. The school now confers the degree of Bachelor of Arts on its graduates after four years' study following that of the grammar schools, but the course of study is too short to entitle its graduates to this honorable distinction. With the thorough training of the grammar schools, if one year were added for a preliminary preparation in language, the students would be entirely qualified to complete a full collegiate course in the time allotted. In respect to the change of the name of the Institution it may be said that a great city like Philadelphia should have a free college connected with the public school system, in which every boy who aspires to it, no matter how humble his circumstances, may acquire a collegiate education. The graduates of this Institution would then be well qualified to enter upon a higher course of study in the University with which by scholarships the High School is already somewhat intimately associated. This would give us a grand system of free public instruction, reaching from the Kindergarten to the College, and even up to the University.

The introduction of military drills into our High School will, I believe, be found of great advantage to the institution. As is well known, the Boston High School has had the military drill as a part of its curriculum for many

years, a large armory being provided for the purpose ; and the feature is rapidly extending to other High Schools and Colleges throughout the country, Would it not be well to take into consideration the propriety of providing a suitable room for an armory in or near the new building which is to be erected during the coming year ?

THE MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

The work of the Manual Training Schools continues to merit our confidence and admiration. Under the supervision of competent principals, and with intelligent and skillful instructors, they are doing a work of which Philadelphia may feel proud. Their exhibit of students' work at the Columbian Exhibition was unsurpassed by that of any similar institutions in the country. These schools, it will be remembered, are really High Schools, and if we introduce Manual Training in the ~~Grand~~ ^{High} Schools it will be advisable to distinguish their work from that of the elementary schools. If it be decided to change the title of the Boys' Central High School to the College of Philadelphia, would it not be well to change the title of these other institutions also, calling them Manual Training High Schools? Such a term would actually indicate their work, and it would seem that they are entitled to it.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The work of the Elementary Schools during the past year has in the main been satisfactory. Principals and teachers have generally manifested a deep interest in their work, and have seemed desirous of availing themselves of all opportunities for improving their qualifications. As a class they have shown a fidelity to duty and a spirit of devotion unsurpassed by that which can be found in any other vocation. They have been punctual in their attendance upon meetings called by the Superintendent, and have

shown a commendable professional spirit in forming and attending classes for increasing their culture and efficiency. While there is a difference in the skill and devotion of our teachers as in the schools of every great city, it is gratifying to know that so large a number are seeking to qualify themselves more fully for their work, a fact which must result in a gradual improvement in the teaching force of the city.

During the last year much time has been devoted to the introduction of the new Course in Drawing. The new Course in Arithmetic is working satisfactorily, and promises to give increased skill and power to the students in that branch. The work in Arithmetic in the primary grades has been greatly simplified, and the introduction of Arithmetical Analysis in the higher grades is serving to train pupils to logical habits of thought and expression. The courses of instruction in Geography and History seem to need some modification to adapt them to the best interests of the schools and will receive the attention of this department during the coming year. It is being urged by prominent educators that a course in Latin should be introduced in the elementary schools for pupils who desire to fit for College; and if the Boys' Central High School should be converted into a College, as previously suggested, it may be that the question of introducing the study of Latin into the last year of the Grammar Course for pupils who desire to enter the High School will present itself for the consideration of the Board.

Permit me to suggest that several changes in the organization of our schools would be of advantage. First, all schools in the same building under separate principals should be united under one principal at as early a date as possible. The reasons for this are so evident that they need not be stated here. Second, it would be of great advantage to unite our Primary and Secondary Schools

under the one head of Primary Schools, grading them into four years as in the Grammar Schools, thus giving us eight grades, four in the Primary Schools and four in the Grammar Schools, each grade corresponding to one year's work. Third, it is recommended that all schools of ten full divisions should be placed under supervision, a modification of the rule which now requires twelve divisions. The increase of the number of schools placed under supervision during the past year is very gratifying; and efforts should be continued in this direction until all the schools that will admit of it are placed under competent supervising principals. It is only in this way that our schools can be lifted up into the highest condition of excellence. The power of the supervising principal to instruct and inspire his teachers, and mould and vivify his school, is one of the most influential forces to elevate the standard of our schools. It is believed that one of the greatest improvements that Philadelphia ever made in the management of her schools was the placing of them under supervision; and the condition of her schools will continue to improve in direct ratio with the extension of this feature. The utmost care, however, should be exercised in placing only the most competent men or women in the positions of supervisors, as a poor supervisor is worse than none at all.

THE DEPARTMENT OF KINDERGARTENS.

The work of the Kindergartens during the past year has been very satisfactory. The teachers though young are full of enthusiasm and seem to do their work with zeal and intelligence. The success of the department is especially due to the efficient supervision of the Directress, who by natural endowments and professional culture is eminently fitted for the position. The recognition of her ability by the educators and friends of education in other cities is especially gratifying to me, and should be regarded

as complimentary to the Board of Public Education. As an expression of my appreciation of her ability and efficiency, I would respectfully recommend that she be transferred to the department of Superintendence, thus being placed in the same relation to the Superintendent as the other assistants. This is actually our relations at present, and it would seem that this relation should be officially recognized by the Board.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Realizing the value of the physical element in the early training of children, I have devoted some time to its consideration during the past year. While in a few of our schools some attention is given to calisthenics, in most of them the subject of physical education is largely neglected. Not only has no regular system of gymnastic exercise been introduced, but teachers often allow pupils to contract improper habits of sitting and standing detrimental alike to both health and grace. In order to call the attention of our teachers to the importance of physical education and to awaken an interest in it, I arranged for two lectures upon the subject by a lady from the West, whose system had been highly recommended to me by prominent educators. The exposition of her views made so deep an impression upon the minds of our teachers that they voluntarily organized several classes for instruction in the system with a view to its introduction in their schools. In order to deepen and extend this interest, I invited Miss Spiegel, the Instructor in Gymnastics in the Normal School, to prepare a lecture for our teachers with illustrations of work adapted to the elementary schools. This lecture was favorably received by our teachers, and shows that the Normal School is working in the right direction and may lend important aid in the introduction of suitable physical exercises in our public schools. In many cities this work

is under the supervision of a director and assistants; but I believe our principals and regular teachers will be found competent to take charge of it if we can give them opportunities for qualifying themselves a little more fully for the work.

While a system of gymnastics may be adapted to both boys and girls throughout all the grades of the elementary schools, it is a question whether something more distinctly masculine is not required for the boys of the higher grades of the grammar schools. New York and Brooklyn have recently introduced military drills in their grammar schools, and a sentiment seems to be growing in favor of such exercises throughout the country. That a military drill with boys presents many advantages, intellectual and physical, cannot for a moment be doubted, and the subject is respectfully referred to the Board for its future consideration.

CONCLUSION.

In closing this report, I desire to tender my grateful acknowledgments for the cordial support of the Board of Education in the discharge of my duties during the past year. I desire also to say that the interest manifested by the public press of the city in the work of this department is both gratifying and encouraging, as it tends to cultivate a public sentiment interested in and watchful of the cause of public education. It gives me pleasure also to bear testimony to the efficiency and devotion of my Assistant Superintendents in the discharge of duties whose delicacy and responsibility can be appreciated only by those who are closely connected with them. I repeat my recommendation of last year, that the Board and Councils shall recognize their faithful services by a generous addition to their salaries.

All of which is respectfully submitted,

EDWARD BROOKS,

Superintendent of Public Schools.

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